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We beg leave to state that we decline to return or to enter into correspondence as to rejected communications; and to this rule we can make no exception. Manuscripts not acknowledged within four weeks are rejected.

NOTES OF THE WEEK.

Lord Rosebery in a speech at the dinner of the Wolverhampton Chamber of Commerce on Wednesday did what he so often effectively does; he dealt at length with ideas that are present in the minds of most thinking persons. Thus it is by no means startling to be told that the nations in the future are more likely to suffer from the war of trade than from military wars for territorial objects. Ten years ago Lord Salisbury pointed out this danger when he predicted a war of commercial tariffs. Another shape of the same danger has been for some years now manifest in the growing competition with Germany and America; in the former case arising from the scientific methods, sound education, and persistency of the German people; in the other from the enormous accumulation of large fortunes and the rise of the trusts and combinations which, as Lord Rosebery said, may be a competitive engine of the most formidable character. All this is very true, and no one is impatient with Lord Rosebery for drawing attention to the necessity in these circumstances for putting our commercial and political arrangements on a sound business footing. He has done so before: it was his theme in the Rectorial address which recently attracted so much notice. But, except for the value of insistence on an important topic, we do not know that Lord Rosebery has done more than show his versatility in making several speeches on the same subject. Mr. Chamberlain, speaking on Thursday as Chancellor of the University of Birmingham, was not less interesting on a similar theme, and he was engaged in practically realising his ideas.

It is an accepted maxim that our soldiers are not good speechmakers; and we recently called attention to the case of Lord Dundonald—who by the way, we see, has not yet learned the wisdom of silence—as a proof of it, and at the same time of the growing habit of soldiers to indulge in speechmaking. But for absolute ineptitude and amazing folly of this kind Sir Redvers Buller may fairly be given the palm. At Aldershot, he gravely recommended the assembled officers to read historical novels as a basis for acquiring a knowledge of military history! and he assured his audience that he knew "no better way of beginning the study of military history"! Can it be possible that Sir Redvers himself has graduated in such a school? If so, we confess we can see little similarity between the deeds of James Grant's heroes or Lever's characters and those of the "grim

taciturn man" of whom so much was expected by England in 1899.

A little more of the spirit of a Jack Hinton would have prevented Long's guns at Colenso from being taken away under the very nose of an undefeated British army of superior strength. The instincts of a Charles O'Malley would have rendered it impossible for the Boers, after the relief of Ladysmith, to withdraw their heavy guns in the leisurely manner they did entirely unmolested. Possibly, however, Sir Redvers was merely essaying to be humorous, and did not really mean, in alluding to historical novels, such works as "The Romance of War." Possibly he was thinking of the marvellous romance in the "Official Histories" of our recent wars compiled and edited at our War Office? This may be the class of work which Sir Redvers advocates as conducive to the subsequent study of "the practical works which are the foundations of the novels"!

In Cape Colony there is little change in the state of affairs. Several small parties of Boers seem to be retreating northwards, and a portion of the Cape rebels who had joined them have since surrendered. Three thousand Boers are in the meantime reported to be at Carolina in the Transvaal, whence comes the report of various engagements. Machadodorp was attacked on the night of the 9th, but before dawn the assailants had been driven off. On the west, too, of Pretoria our mounted infantry was about the same time engaged with a small force. Even the neighbourhood of Pretoria itself has been the scene of considerable Boer activity, and on the 12th 1,400 of them attacked the stations at Zuurfontein and Kaalfontein, being subsequently driven away to the eastwards. General Boyes has also been engaged with the enemy near Senekal, and Commandant Duprez is reported as killed. Lord Kitchener's request for more men is to be met by sending out 5,000 Yeomanry. Probably more will have to be sent to relieve the auxiliary forces which have remained for over a year on active service.

A very suitable use has been found for the Mauser rifles captured in South Africa. They will be sent to India to arm the frontier levies and corps like the Khyber Rifles, who are recruited from the local tribes to garrison those wild tracts where a regular military occupation has been found undesirable. Hitherto these corps have been armed with discarded Sniders, while the tribesmen whom they have to repress carry Martinis and Lee-Metfords. The difficulty about placing the superior weapons in the hands of the levies has been the immense incentive to rifle-thieves and deserters. The Mauser will not be worth stealing for the simple

reason that ammunition for it will be unprocurable by the thieves. Martini cartridges are to be had in any quantity both from India and Kabul, and Lee-Metford ammunition though expensive is not out of reach of the enterprising Afridi. But the Mauser cartridge will not be obtainable outside the Government arsenals.

There is little to record in the Chinese news beyond the fact that the Protocols embodying the terms of the Joint Note of the Powers have at last really been signed by the Chinese plenipotentiaries, after a hunt for the Emperor's seal which according to the story had been left in the Palace at Peking. As the mysterious importance of the Emperor's seal appears to equal that of our own Great Seal, the wonder is that the envoys did not contrive to lose it altogether as did our James II. and spin out the parleyings a little longer while a new seal was being prepared. But in fact this was hardly necessary, for in the discussion that will now take place there will be infinite opportunities for delay and chicanery of all kinds that will not be missed. There are numberless points on which the union of the Powers will be strained. Russian and American intrigues will be resumed under favourable conditions. America is again talking of the cessation of military operations and the withdrawal of troops from Peking, after having failed to procure the transfer of negotiations to Washington. The Powers however seem settling down for a long stay. The Pao-tung-fu and Tientsin railways are being brought up to the walls of the city; and special Chinese courts, controlled by the foreign occupants, have been formed for punishing criminal offences.

In the comparative absence of news from the Far East we have been presented during the week with certain interesting pictures and problems of the Near East. We are to infer that arrangements are being made in view of that ever-approaching but from time to time warded-off struggle in the Balkans which cannot ultimately be averted. The meeting at Nish of King Alexander of Serbia and Prince Ferdinand of Bulgaria is considered significant of the efforts at present being made by Russian diplomacy to bring about what foreign correspondents delight in calling a rapprochement between these two States, in which Montenegro it is hoped will also take part. On the other hand, we are asked to see in the Commercial Convention between Greece and Roumania a basis for further friendly political relations, with the blessing of Turkey resting on both, against the Macedonian machinations of the other rival States. In the aggressive attitude of Bulgaria towards Roumania, which nearly brought the two countries to war, and in the state of affairs in Serbia, there is a sufficiently reasonable ground for some such grouping of the non-Slavonic States as above mentioned to be probable; and it might have some effect in continuing the status quo some time longer.

M. Witte has by his ability as Finance Minister fulfilled the assurance he made to the Tsar that it would not be necessary for Russia to seek a new loan in order to meet the Chinese and other Asiatic difficulties. By taking from the "free balance" or reserve resources of the Treasury a sum of about £5,700,000 and by calculating the increased expenditure for 1901 only at £3,000,000 more than for 1900, though the annual increase for the last half-dozen years has been nearly four times that amount, he balances his accounts. As the Budget however includes extraordinary as well as ordinary expenditure provided for by the ordinary revenue, with the exception of the "free balance," and the extraordinary expenditure is placed at about £13,000,000, the surplus of ordinary revenue over ordinary expenditure is estimated to amount to no less than nearly seven millions and a half sterling. But two very serious facts are first the depletion of the free balance which stood at a little over twelve millions sterling at the beginning of the year and now at little more than half that amount: secondly that neither the credits already taken for China nor to be assigned for 1901 represent what has been incurred.

Though in other departments than those represented by the extraordinary expenditure which is so closely

connected with Russia's schemes of expansion in the East every effort has been made to retrench, there must be a not remote limit to making up deficiencies from a "free balance" which is rapidly disappearing. Extraordinary expenditure on a large scale continued for years and met out of ordinary revenue means inordinate taxation. M. Witte denies that this system lays an unnecessarily extra burden on the population; but this bit of special pleading is obviously prompted by the consideration that the system commends itself to him because it staves off the day of borrowing. It rather appears indeed that it is not borrowing per se that M. Witte is expecting to avoid so much as going into the international money market at a time when it is depressed and embarrassed, when capital is dear, and when the war in South Africa and the Chinese troubles are exerting unfavourable influences. In fact M. Witte will wait for better times which will come. And they will, unless the "peaceful mission" of Russia is thwarted by unforeseen and unexpected complications. It is a touching confidence!

Notwithstanding the large amount of silver recently sent to India for coinage, the demand for rupees still remains unsatisfied and some difficulty is apprehended in financing the trade which is at its briskest in this season. More gold is coming home to purchase silver, while the high price and restricted sale of council bills compel the banks and merchants in India to import sovereigns from Europe and Australia. There is thus the curious spectacle of a double stream of gold flowing in opposite directions, with of course a charge for freight each way. The position is an absurd one. It should be obviated by a judicious use of the Gold Note Act which permits the Secretary of State to receive gold in London against the issue of rupees in India. But apparently the same shortness of rupees there, which restricts the issue of paper money, debars the Indian Treasury from accepting this responsibility also. A more complete reversal of the anticipations formed by the Currency Commission can scarcely be imagined. Meanwhile the Indian Exchequer is gaining a very handsome profit on the coinage of token silver. It does not appear however that the money so gained is earmarked as the Commission recommended.

On Thursday and Friday was celebrated in Berlin with great pomp one of those national events which the Germans in these days observe with such evident enjoyment of their growing importance. This was the 200th anniversary of the coronation at Königsberg of the Elector Frederick III. of Brandenburg as Frederick I. of Prussia, which has had such important consequences for Germany and the world. Since then, with the exception of William I. in 1861, none of the Prussian kings have been formally crowned; but the present Emperor's love of functions must have had a serious struggle with his love of observing traditions before he decided to forego the ceremony. The anniversary ceremonies at Berlin emphasise the historical fact of the development of the German Empire from the Prussian State, and the German navy's rôle in the functions especially signalise the growth of the Imperial fleet out of that of Prussia. All the great European Powers were represented; the Duke of Connaught being the representative of the Queen. With much piety and characteristic Prussian self-assertiveness, the newspapers see in the demonstration a proof of Prussia's gratitude to Providence for the varied dispensations of the last two centuries, and evidence that the position of Prussia within the German nation constitutes a certificate of its own efficiency. After all Englishmen and Frenchmen and Prussians talk much in the self-same strain.

Not long ago the great debate in German domestic politics between the two parties of the Industrials and the Agrarians was being fought over the Navy Bill, the Government finding its schemes opposed by the latter on the same kind of economical grounds which they now put forward against the Canal Bills which are being pushed on in the Prussian Diet. We referred last week to the objections urged by the Agrarians that the East was being sacrificed to the

West and the Prussian Ministry warned by their defeat over a Rhine and Elbe Canal Bill in 1899 have framed their new Bill with the object of removing this objection of the Agrarians. The canal system is to be extended into all parts of the kingdom and the seven different schemes will cost the State over nineteen millions sterling. Apparently however the Agrarians have not yet been completely converted and they are taking certain financial and less personal objections based on the relation of the kingdom to the Empire. The Prussian State at present is remarkably prosperous and even the prudent Prussian Finance Minister, Dr. von Miquel, now contemplates the expenses of the canal scheme with a light heart though absolute success cannot be predicted. But this state of prosperity is hardly the condition of the Empire, and this it is argued should make Prussia very careful in embarking on costly enterprises as the financial condition of the Empire must make itself felt in all the German States.

On Monday the first of the discussions, which are likely to occupy the French Chamber and Senate for some weeks, took place on what is mildly called the Associations Bill but which is merely the latest of a series of attacks on the operations and property of the religious orders which have become historical since the Revolution. To what extent the proposal is a confiscation of the property of the orders is not quite clear, but the intention is at least to apply a strict law of mortmain which will prevent the further acquisition of real property by the religious congregations. The plea upon which this legislation is put forward is that these religious bodies, influenced by implacable hostility to the Republic, are acquiring a mass of property and carrying on an educational propaganda so dangerous to the State that it is a necessary measure of self-protection that the State shall assume direct control over their actions and define their relations to itself, as the relations of the secular clergy were defined by the Concordat. In that case the freedom of the orders would be impaired, their educational and other work would be supervised by the State and prescribed by limits beyond which they could not go without incurring the penalty of confiscation of their property.

One effect of the Bill would be that in future no person whose education had been received at an ecclesiastical establishment could obtain an appointment as a State official in any branch of the civil or military services. It is incredible that such legislation should pass, if the power of the religious orders is as dangerous as the Government asserts it to be; and if it does, then the legislation stands disclosed as what it in fact is, a declaration of mere hostility forced upon the Government by its supporters of the Left. This is a heavy price to pay for their support given during the late troubles; and if we did not know that anti-religious intolerance makes men as deaf to common sense and prudence as the extremest religious bigotry, we should be surprised that the Socialists such as M. Viviani and M. Sembat who have supported M. Waldeck-Rousseau's Ministry should have embarked on a course which threatens to wreck the ship they helped to save. It is yet too early, however, to forecast the fate of the Bill. Almost certainly it will not be carried in its present extreme form. The Chamber has refused to support a resolution disapproving of M. Waldeck-Rousseau for not prosecuting Cardinal Richard who published the Pope's letter deprecating the action of the Government in introducing the Associations Bill; and another resolution approved of the maintenance of the Concordat which the Government declares itself bound to maintain, though M. Sembat and M. Viviani declare that the absolute separation of Church and State is the logical outcome of the attack on the Church. That may be so, but the premisses of the Associations Bill would have to be first accepted. These premisses we think are bound to be cut down very considerably during the progress of the Bill.

The French continue to experiment with the "Morse" and "Narval" and seem convinced of the value of the submarine boat. The American Naval Board of Construction, to judge by their report, refuse

to commit themselves to further building of this type of craft until more experience has been gained from those already in hand. As things stand, the American Board act wisely. The "periscope," whatever its secret may be, appears to be too delicate for practical use in rough weather and night work, and after all will not solve the difficulty of seeing obstacles below the surface of the water. Though we hear much of torpedoes being fired successfully, we should like to know whether one has been exploded and if so, what effect the explosion may have had on the boat, its frail mechanism and its occupants. Meantime we may watch with interest but without alarm. The submarine boat is ingenious, but not yet dangerous. It seems much cheaper and more useful to experiment in the direction of defence from submarine attack, and without doubt some effective means will be found by which an approaching boat will automatically register itself long before it can be of danger. Inventions already tend this way, and it would be folly to spend on costly toys the money required for ironclads, cruisers and other more pressing requirements.

As a nation we seem to be singularly unfortunate in our attempts to provide technical education for aspirants to Government employment. The one establishment which has hitherto not been found wanting is Cooper's Hill. For many years it has done its work well and in a quiet and unostentatious manner, and it speaks volumes for the excellence of the training there that in the recent emergency it was the one and only educational establishment where young men qualified for commissions in the Royal Engineers could be obtained. Apparently from motives of economy the India Office has suddenly decided on reducing the educational staff and some seven professors and teachers, all able scientific men who have been employed there for various periods ranging from ten to nearly thirty years, have suddenly received what is tantamount to three months' notice to quit! In the interests of higher education, no step could be more deplorable. It is a grave injustice to a body of men who have devoted their lives to a very special branch, for very small pecuniary reward. This ill-advised action is said to be due to the initiative of an Engineer Officer recently appointed President of the College, who has no special knowledge of scientific subjects and has had no previous experience in educational matters.

Fair play for voluntary schools was the keynote of the meeting of the Association of Voluntary Teachers at King's College last Tuesday. As one speaker pertinently said: "Were the undenominational party the only possessors of conscience? Surely the religious conscience whether 'conformist' or non-conformist has as much right to be considered by the State as that of the atheist or secularist." The Bishop of Rochester effectively disposed of the bogey of public control that financial aid must entail. Voluntary schools come too often under "one-horse" management, public representatives on their boards would "brisk them up educationally." The resolutions passed dealt with equal treatment for voluntary and board schools, large areas for all kinds of elementary education, and public representation on voluntary boards of managers. It looks as if the whirligig of time were bringing its revenge and that Sir John Gorst will have to re-introduce his Bill of 1896.

If the distinction between service to the Church and to the nation be allowed, we might say that the death of the Bishop of London is as great a loss to the nation as to the Church. We shall hardly find in contemporary politics such a combination of the qualities of statesmanship as those which Dr. Creighton exhibited in his dioceses of Peterborough and London and through them in the Church at large. With the temperament of the scholar he had also that sane and practical ability which appeals to the man of business and causes him to look with confidence on the leadership which he would distrust, if only the more recondit endowments were presented to him. This and strong, broad views of men and society, the result of a perfect culture, well fitted Dr. Creighton to represent that high

type of the Anglican Churchman which attracts the admiration, sympathy, and respect, of men of all varieties of theological opinion. Hence his great influence on contemporary religious life. He has died at the age of fifty-seven, prematurely worn out by the work to which great workers like him sacrifice themselves in their devotion to duty.

All tastes may not be gratified by the Report of the Medical Officer of Health for the Administrative County of London but it is a document not to be neglected in studying the social life of a population of over four and a half millions. He must not be squeamish who reads the accounts of our burial system in cemeteries and graveyards; nor will he be very hopeful of seeing our burial customs, which have so many revolting phases, improved within any reasonable period by the growth of a healthier sentiment than exists at present. If there is anything more disgusting than the way people are buried, it is the way in which so many live; not because "the pig makes his sty" but, as Dr. Shirley Murphey says, the sty produces the pig. A reference to the report on Kensington is sufficient proof. As to how people are marrying and being born, the tendency since 1878 is for the marriage rate to fall below the average of 1851-99, whereas from 1878 back to 1851 it always rose above the average, and as to the birth rate much the same is true; 1899 showing the lowest birth rate on record in London. For the curiosities of the subject, such as the variations in different parts of London, the Report must be consulted; and after all London, on the whole, is one of the healthiest towns in the United Kingdom.

Mr. Justice Wright will probably decide to-day whether the London and Globe Finance Corporation is to be wound up compulsorily or whether the resolution of the shareholders for voluntary liquidation shall prevail. It will be necessary for the petitioning creditors, who wish to upset the decision of the shareholders, to show that the resolution was carried by some misrepresentation or suppression of material facts; and it would be of course improper to discuss the merits of the case. But this much is obvious, and is not matter of comment but of fact, that if the petitions succeed, there is an end to all schemes for the reconstruction of the company. The feeling on the Stock Exchange is very uncomfortable and bitter about the whole thing, as the trouble is not confined to the Lake View smash, but extends to the dealings in the shares of the Rossland and Kootenay mines, for which no special settlement has yet been fixed.

The feature of the week in the Stock Exchange has been the arrest of the upward movement in American rails. There has been no particular reason for this; the economic condition of the United States and the financial prospects of the railways are of course unchanged, while money continues cheap and plentiful in New York. The truth is that markets cannot go on booming day after day for months, and the drop of three or four dollars all round will no doubt have a beneficial effect in checking weak speculation. Readings have been a disappointment, for having touched 19½ in the last account, and been talked up to 25, they have dropped this week to 16. The rumoured meeting of the shareholders of the Erie Railway turned out to be a myth, and the Preference and Ordinary declined accordingly, though it is practically certain that 2 per cent. will be paid on the former in March. The really strongest market of all is the South African, and for an obvious reason. The protraction of the war has cleared this market of all open accounts, and the shares therefore remain in the hands of strong holders. There is little or no movement of prices here, Rand mines rising or falling a point according to the telegrams from Lord Kitchener. The Jungle market is more or less affected by the London and Globe trouble, and prices move uneasily backwards and forwards. Argentine Rails have been strong, Central Argentines rising to 105 and Buenos Ayres and Pacific to 62 on traffics and crop prospects. The Bank of England return on Thursday was good and Home Rails were a trifle stronger, Brighton A rising 1, and Great Westerns 2. Consols closed at 96½.

THE RESETTLEMENT OF THE TRANSVAAL.

THAT Mr. Chamberlain is ignorant of the gravity of the economic crisis that is hurrying on in South Africa we do not believe. From his silence we must infer that he does not think public opinion is ripe for the exposition of a statesmanlike scheme for the rehabilitation of the conquered provinces. And yet, with all deference, the reserve of the Colonial Secretary is in this instance mistaken. Mr. Chamberlain should lead, not wait upon, public opinion. It is not reinforcements of Yeomanry, or the organising brain of Lord Kitchener, that will end the war, but famine and the shortage of ammunition. In other words, the struggle in South Africa has passed from the military into the economic stage. We cannot end the war by the extermination of the race, or by driving the Boers out of the country, because we are now fighting with only about one-third of the population, while the remaining two-thirds are being looked after by us, most of them in distant countries. We have not however placed them in countries where they have any chance of doing for themselves; on the contrary we are feeding them in camps, surrounded by barbed wire, as prisoners and thus we have assumed the responsibility of their future. There is no place in the world where we can send them to start in life anew which would not cost us very much more than to return them to their own land, and there are no people we could put on the farms in their places who could manage to make a livelihood out of the land. The peculiar condition of the country would absolutely forbid it. The droughts and diseases of cattle and corn are so many, and require such peculiar knowledge to combat, that no farmers from England, much less settlers from towns, could overcome them without a knowledge gained from experience lasting for years; in the meantime they would be reduced to poverty, and would certainly abandon the hopeless task. The money we should have to find for them would be all dead loss. The population of the mining centres might perhaps be fed entirely from abroad, as the soldiers now are, but the rest of the country would become derelict and smitten with famine. Wild beasts would multiply and the Kaffirs, numbering a million, starving and restless, would probably give us endless trouble in that wild and difficult country.

We have no example in modern history of the results of deporting a whole people and replacing them by other men strangers to the land. In the case of the Boer prisoners whom we are now keeping in Ceylon and S. Helena, it will be found, and is probably already recognised, that there is nothing we can eventually do with them except to replace them on their own farms. After taking so much care of them for so long, we cannot simply land them on the shores of Africa to do as best they can for themselves. The crops are all destroyed, the cattle have been swept away, and unfortunately great numbers of horses have been destroyed. As we cannot leave these people to starve in a wasted country we shall find ourselves obliged to replace them in such a manner as will ensure them against failure at first; and this is a course which does not at present recommend itself to the public in England, who, not carefully reasoning out the necessities of the case, think it hard that, after the sufferings and losses we have sustained in blood and money, we should be called upon to find more money to start our enemies in life again. Moreover, they argue that if we compensate the Boers we must all the more compensate the loyal farmers of our own Colonies who have suffered great losses from the operations of war, and not only them but the Uitlanders who have lost much and suffered much in the last year. This view appeals very strongly to people's sentiment, and to those who do not reason the situation carefully out. "Vae Victis" refers to the conquest of a foreign country whose future is of little concern to the conquerors, and of a nation whose extermination matters little except to themselves. It cannot be made to apply to a conquered people who have hereafter to live as subjects. Whether we wish it or not, the inexorable course of events will compel us to see that the people with whom we are now fighting shall be put in a position to live and thrive after the

war is over, and if this had been recognised, and the course we intended to take had been settled and publicly announced at the time Pretoria was taken, it would probably have ended the war.

The public temper however was not equal to the occasion, and we then insisted on unconditional surrender, a policy which the Boers did not view in the light we probably intended. Most Englishmen understood by it that, when this unconditional surrender was made, the Boers would resume their old life, minus a President and a constitution, but with the same liberties as other subjects of the Queen, a change which did not seem to us very severe. To the Boers the aspect was very different. Their friends who had surrendered had been sent to distant countries; their farms had been swept of all produce and cattle; their ripe crops were destroyed and the new crops unsown; and many of their homes had been burned to the ground. In many cases their farms had been mortgaged to small traders, chiefly Jews, who would have the right to foreclose the mortgages and seize the farms if the interest was not duly paid. There was nothing to show, and no reasonable ground for them to expect, that, if they gave in, these damages would be repaid, or their liabilities in any way altered; and they saw nothing before them but bankruptcy, and a worse state of things in the future for themselves and their families than that they were then labouring under. The consequence was the war broke out in a form more annoying and irritating than ever, and feelings on both sides are in danger of becoming so embittered that the chance of future friendship will be small. Common sense therefore dictates that we should use whatever advantage may be gained by showing the Boers that their future is not so black as it appears to them, to bring the war to a speedier end than now appears likely, and we should aim not only at bringing the Boer privates into our camp, but also at appealing to the judgment of their generals. There can be little doubt that the Boers must be almost, or quite, as tired of the war as we are; and if we made up our minds as to our future policy and communicated it to them, it might be found that there was a closer approach between what we would give, and what they would accept, than now appears on the face of affairs. Probably there would be no hesitation on our part to let them remain with some of their own forms of government, and to allow Dutch landdrosts and field cornets to continue to administer the law. The Rand and other mining districts would be differently administered, but this would not much affect a people who lived on their farms, and would use the centres of population merely for trading purposes. It seems to be a mistake to suppose that such a course would be derogatory to us, or be regarded by the Boers as a sign of weakness: it might have been at an earlier stage of the war, but can scarcely be so now. But this question of future government is not sufficient. If he is not to become a vagrant and a danger the Boer must be assisted when he first goes back to his farm. Moreover his farm must not be liable to seizure by private individuals before he has a chance of paying his way. It is a pity that the word "compensation" has found its way into proposals for settlement. It does not represent what must be done and what it is really a good investment to do. It is as much for our own interest as for the Boers that they should be replaced on the land in a satisfactory way. If they be not replaced, there will for many years be a dearth of all things which are raised from the soil. The miners, fed from abroad, would miss the cattle and horses, the only means of transport in the country districts. Sickness, peculiar to the country, would prevent their being replaced by foreign animals, and, although most of the necessities of life can be procured from foreign countries, they would badly take the place of many things which the country has hitherto produced. The loss therefore in allowing the land to become derelict would be far greater than any sum spent on replacing the only people who know the ways of the country sufficiently to do the work of restocking it. Leaving out the enormous gain that would be made by shortening the war even by a few weeks, expenditure on this account will pay abundantly after a few years. It is wrong therefore to speak of "compensation"

which suggests a grant of money that will not be repaid. The relief should be in the form of a loan secured by mortgage on the farms. There is plenty of precedent for this course in the history of the transfer of farms to Irish tenants under the Land Commissioners. A payment would have to be exacted which would be a little more than what was required to pay the interest of the loan, and thus insure to the tenant a freehold in the land after a certain number of years, and the cost of replacement of burnt houses should be distributed over the whole country. Former mortgages should be either held in abeyance for some years, or bought up by the Government. These matters would require the most judicious management. The man who was entrusted to carry out the scheme should be given very large powers in remitting, lightening, or putting off taxation according to the necessities of each individual case, as is freely done in India in bad times. The task is one peculiarly fitted for the genius of Sir Alfred Milner, if he were afforded plenty of expert assistance. There would be little fear of this loan not being paid; in spite of the charge on the farms the Boers would soon, after the first pressure, become prosperous. If the government of the country should take an interest in irrigation the prosperity of the farmers would increase with rapid strides. Of all the expenditure on the war this is the one item which shows no likelihood of being a permanent charge on the country.

The assistance given by this country would probably take the form of guaranteeing a loan to the colonies in which the settlement was made, and there does not seem to be any room for the statement that the Boers would receive, in this respect, better treatment than loyal colonists, because it is only just that farmers in Natal and the Cape Colony should be put on their feet in the same way; and that the losses of individuals should be distributed over the whole of each colony. The recent proclamations of the Commander-in-Chief in South Africa, with a view of inducing the Boers now in the field to come to terms, are a great advance on previous methods, but they stop short of the considerations here noted down. If we must do this thing at the end of the war, and there seems no doubt that we must, why not now endeavour to end the war by stating our intentions at once?

RUSSIA AND PERSIA.

THE establishment of a Russian government with a commanding naval base in Northern China will inevitably give a fresh importance to her position and aims in Persia. In the Northern Pacific she has reached the open sea, and is well on her way to absorb the Hinterland. The full exploitation of these remote eastern provinces cannot be sufficiently secured by the long land lines through the inclement regions of Northern Asia. The next step must be to develop a sea-borne trade and protect it by a strong naval squadron. Once firmly established at the eastern extremity, Russia will next require a position nearer home which will shorten the long sea journey, or at least protect the route which her ships must follow between the Black and Yellow Seas. Such a position is to be found in the Persian Gulf and nowhere else. This is her natural outlet to the Indian Ocean: she will now seek to secure it. It is no new idea. Towards this end the policy of Russia has been working not for years or decades but for centuries. The so-called Will of Peter the Great expresses it succinctly. "Lose no opportunity to provoke war with Persia; hasten her decay; penetrate to the Persian Gulf; re-establish the ancient trade of the Levant, and advance upon India." The founder of modern Russia looked no further than the Indies, but the horizon has since extended. With that steady, relentless determination which has terrified the nations of Asia, this policy has been pursued through difficulty, opposition and obstruction till the end is now in sight. In the last quarter of the century the progress has been literally at railroad speed. The conversion of the Caspian into a Russian lake, and the subjugation of Central Asia, have laid Persia open all along her northern

frontier. The Trans-Caspian railway has cast its arms about her borders, and the garrisons along the line from Kizil Arvat to Khushk stand ready to replace diplomatic dominance by military occupation whenever the occasion arises. That the occasion will arise whenever Russia requires it is not a prophecy but a commonplace. Everything has been carefully prepared. Russian trade, sedulously fostered, has surveyed and opened the roads of advance, and furnished at each step a reason or a pretext for fresh interference. Russian officers command the most disciplined section of the Persian army and Russian diplomacy, backed by irresistible force, has transcended, it might almost be said has excluded, all other influence in the Persian Court. The right of railway construction in Persia has passed into the hands of the Tsar. To crown all, only a year ago Russia succeeded in establishing a financial control over the Persian Government which practically gives her the command of Persian revenues and finances, as well as of the commercial and economical development of the country. This last coup, which must inevitably enable her to control the whole policy of Persia, cost the ridiculously small sum of about three and a half millions, well secured as an investment. Not the least mortifying part of the business is that this advantage, or something like it, might have accrued to England if she had the resolution and enterprise to seize it. Persian statesmen have been under no misconception concerning the measures and aims of Russia. They have seen clearly enough what her advances foreboded to their country, and have received them with mistrust and aversion. On the other hand they have recognised that Great Britain does not seek annexation or control of her territories. She has withdrawn her soldiers from Persian soil and has refrained from occupation of Persian ports. Here as elsewhere England desires only an open market: she polices the Persian waters for the equal benefit of all. The Persian Government knows it well. Unfortunately Persia is too weak to oppose so powerful and unscrupulous an ally as Russia, and English statesmanship gives her no assurance that she can look to us for that support which identity of interest should lead us to afford.

The policy of England in Persia, if there can be said to have been any policy, presents a humiliating contrast to the firm, purposeful line of action pursued by her great Asiatic rival. We have alternately feared, courted, despised, and disregarded the power of Persia. We have promised her protection and withheld it. We have made treaties and shuffled out of the responsibility they involved. We have sought and found opportunities for establishing a commanding influence in her army and her industries and we have abandoned them. We have made war victoriously, and gained diplomatic successes, and we have thrown away the advantages of each. Periods of spasmodic and exaggerated activity which have enabled our rivals to neutralise or appropriate all our gains. Is it any wonder that the despairing Persian has sunk under the control of the Power that never wavers and never recedes? The present Viceroy of India has justly summed up our policy as weak in its conception and calamitous in its results. Writing less than ten years ago he could still speak hopefully of English influence at Teheran and her commercial prospects even in Northern Persia. What could he say to-day? Russia has absolutely established herself in the northern provinces to the exclusion of all commercial and political rivalry and has captured the central government. She has for a second time found her opportunity while England was involved in Africa. She is nearing the last stage of her long and laborious advance. Her position is now so strong that her schemes for a railway to the coast and a port on the Persian Gulf are beginning to assume shape and form. They will gain a fresh impetus from the necessity for a maritime route to Northern China. Her measures will have the further advantage to her of exposing a new and dangerous point of attack on India, and establishing a naval basis to threaten or command England's direct highway to her Eastern dominions.

In the future as in the past the absence of a firm, continuous, and declared policy is an invitation to Russian aggressiveness. It is more than time that England

should explicitly define the limits which she claims for her influence, and the invasions of it which would sufficiently menace her security as to be considered acts of overt hostility. Such declarations would of course in no way bind Russia, but they would assist the Persians in opposing the further conversion of their country into a Russian satrapy, and might cause even the most forward exponents of Russian militarism to pause before forcing measures which would amount to a declaration of war. They would moreover fix the attention of English statesmen on the danger which is threatened before it becomes too late to avert it. One among them at least is fully alive to it. Unless some such step is taken Lord Curzon is likely to have an opportunity to carry out his expressed intention of impeaching any British Minister who acquiesces in the concession of a Russian port on the Persian Gulf.

THE YEAR'S FOREIGN TRADE.

THE salient feature of our foreign trade last year was coal. When that has been said almost all that is necessary for an appreciation of the phenomenal values which appear in the Board of Trade Returns has been said. They are phenomenal, truly: the value of our exports is returned at £291,451,306, and of the imports at £523,633,486. Such figures have never been reached before. In the exports the record of 1899 came nearest, with a total of 264½ millions, a figure almost equalled in 1890, when the exports were valued at 263½ millions. With regard to the imports, the increase last year was more marked even than in the case of the exports; in imports we progress all the time, and 1899 was the next biggest year to 1900; but in 1899 the total was 38½ millions below the total of 1900. Really the difference is greater; some of the imports are re-exported; but last year the re-exports were two millions below those of 1899, and in making a comparison the sum must be added to last year's import values. It is a startling feature of our external trade, this great disparity between imports and exports, and it is worthy of note that, enormous though the disparity was last year, it would have been still greater but for the temporary rise in the price of English coal. And with this consideration we are brought again to the controlling feature of this country's trade in the year which has just passed. The increase in the export values over those of 1899 amounts to just under 27 millions sterling. Of that more than half—15½ millions, to be exact—is the consequence of the increased quantity and increased value of our coal export. For years past we have pointed out in this Review the serious character of the wild depletion for the foreigner's benefit of our precious, irreplaceable and vanishing coal supply.

The evil which dear coal works is almost endless in its ramifications. In a time which should have been a period of abounding prosperity dear coal has brought about a serious crisis in the iron and steel trades; and we have the spectacle of furnaces and mills producing with feverish haste, the products being sold at high prices, while many of the owners of those works are wondering if they can stave off bankruptcy, because the cost of production, chiefly in coal, has eaten away the profit-margin even upon the high prices obtained. It is a common complaint that our industries are seriously hampered in their struggle against foreign competition by the much higher rates charged upon English railway lines than upon the lines of foreign countries. English railway rates will doubtless always have to be higher than foreign rates if English railway capital is to receive the most moderate interest: the cost of construction and other matters make this imperative. But so long as English railway companies had cheap coal they enjoyed one compensating advantage which could be and has been used as a lever by traders and Parliament for obtaining reductions in English railway rates. But how is it possible for railway companies to make any further reductions in their rates—badly as the industries of the country need them—with coal mounting up after the recent fashion? Again, how can masters resist the claims of workmen for higher wages when the cost of coal reduces by substantial

amounts the real value of nominal existing wages? And so we might go on, pointing out ever-fresh departments of national life in which dear coal is an unmitigated evil. It used to be said that—agricultural welfare or no agricultural welfare—food-stuffs must be cheap, in order that the poor might live on low wages in the interests of the country's manufacturing industries. It was a perverted and exaggerated argument; but the same line of reasoning may well be applied to dear coal, and with a hundredfold greater force. Coal prices, though still high, are happily giving way now; but the evils of prodigal production for the foreign market are rampant; and there could be no more beneficent piece of fiscal legislation than the replacing of an export duty upon coal such as existed in the old days when the need was so very much less.

But though coal has been the predominant feature of last year's trade, account must also be taken of other raw materials. For the year 1900 has been emphatically the year of raw materials. Pig-iron, as a semi-raw material, may be named in this category. In the course of the last year or two the world's demand for iron and steel has more than kept pace with the current supply. Stocks all over the world have been running down. In this country at the end of 1899 they stood at what was regarded as the exceptionally low figure of 722,000 tons; but at the end of 1900 they were down to 400,000 tons, and this notwithstanding that the world's output of pig-iron was greater in 1900 than in 1899, and greater in 1899 than in any previous year. Apart, then, from the exorbitant rises in the price of coal, pig-iron would have commanded more money last year than before, and there are no direct reasons why the demand for pig-iron should be stayed in the present and succeeding years. This only makes the more pitiful the present restriction of the output of pig-iron in England owing to the dear cost of fuel. But the restriction in output, if carried far enough, will bring a remedy by throwing large quantities of coal upon the market and so reducing its price; and then the demand should increase, as well as the supply, though it is doubtful whether England's share of that supply will be increased much. The production of raw as well as of finished iron is becoming more and more the perquisite of the United States. We should do well to look around for new sources of ore supply. Our own supply is vanishing, and the output is already dwindling, but within the Empire—notably in Canada, which has an extension of the American deposits, probably just as valuable—we can get more than we want for many years to come. At present however the Canadian treasures lie practically dormant, as do the Australian. Australia perhaps is too far off for English purposes, but Canada is not; and surely our iron and steel capitalists would do well to follow the example of the Carnegie Company, and exploit the Canadian deposits. Transport has been hitherto a difficulty, but it is now being solved in a measure by railway construction; while the pushing forward of inland waterway schemes, such as that of the Georgian Bay Canal, would help further to bring a magnificent supply of iron ore within easy reach of this country. If Englishmen miss the opportunity Americans will not be long in capturing the Canadian deposits. They show signs of doing so already.

Another raw material which notably affected last year's trade is cotton. The consumption of cotton goods throughout the world has been steadily increasing for many years past, though not at quite so big a rate as their manufacture. No industrial monopoly has been more generally challenged than Lancashire's monopoly of cotton-spinning and manufacture. Not only the United States and Germany and similar countries of industrial importance have entered into the competition, but all over the civilised world the phenomenon is apparent. Russia, for instance, makes her own cotton goods and exports them to Central Asia; Mexico is vigorously putting up cotton-mills; Italy has done the same, and has rather burnt her fingers in the process. Upon the top of this extended consumption of raw cotton there came a short crop last year, with the result that the average price of American middling cotton in Liverpool was 6*d.*, against 4*d.* in 1899; during the summer as high a price as 7½*d.* was reached.

It is to this semi-famine in cotton that we have to look for the increase in the value of our cotton-goods, export last year of some 2½ millions. It is not the English spinners and manufacturers who have put that money into their pockets, but the American planters. Upon a general survey of last year's foreign trade, then, it will be seen that the year was an entirely abnormal one. There was a boisterous swagger about the huge total figures, which, though not significant of real prosperity, made yet an appropriate close to the century which we have all been smugly admiring as so "wonderful" and "unparalleled." The new century has opened in a more sober vein.

THE DEATH OF THE BISHOP OF LONDON.

DR. CREIGHTON'S death is one of those mysteries that sorely try the type of religious person that thinks himself competent to criticise the Divine Plan. There is such a type. Intellectually contemptible and spiritually impious as such an attitude must be to the sober Christian, there are many whose lives exclude the suggestion either of impiety or insanity, who yet habitually assume a more than mundane familiarity with the Almighty, explain the motives of His action, expound His mode of thought, assign with the utmost confidence this event to Divine and that to human providence, claiming in effect a mastery of God's interposition in the life of a man that they would not dream of arrogating to themselves over one man's influence on the fortune and character of another. Such people, when confronted by staggering catastrophes such as that which has now overtaken the Church of England, are apt to do much harm by the extravagance of their explanations. In the same breath they shock their friends and give themselves into the hands of the enemy. To a thinking Christian these human catastrophes will present no impasse for he will see the logical absurdity, as well as the negation of all his professed beliefs, in the attempt to check a plan which goes on from eternity to sempiternity by the event of a day, or a century, or a millennium. In the nature of things how can he judge of an act's bearings, when he is absolutely unable to gauge the whole to which it is relative? That should dispose of any intellectual difficulties; morally he will be satisfied to know with Plato that God is good.

Certainly, from the merely human point of view, the most malignant and most resourceful enemy of the Anglican Church, we do not think we need hesitate to say, of Christianity, could not have dealt us a more crushing blow than this premature death of the Bishop of London. It removes him from activities of which very few others are even capable, directed against difficulties hardly another was competent to gauge. This is a time for the Church of England at once of extraordinary opportunity and extraordinary danger. The Papal plan is out of harmony with the spirit of the age; for modern Christianity it has no secret of life; its uncritical position intellectually, as well as its moral incomprehension, put it out of touch with the new learning. For Nonconformists, and still more Wesleyans, political history and the change in the spirit of the Anglican communion tend more and more to remove any grounds for aloofness from the Church. The memory of their honest historic grievances is ceasing to gall, and with their wider education a different attitude towards the national Church of history is, in spite of interested political efforts to retard it, inevitably growing up. The historic appeal has taken so wide and so firm a hold of the modern mind that religious communities based on the repudiation of such appeal, witness Milton's "perverse iniquity of sixteen hundred years," can hardly in the future hold their own with a communion that at any rate bases its claim on the highest historic continuity. Then the causes which made Dissent so largely the resource of the poorer people now happily exist no more; while the national organisation of the Church gives it advantages in dealing with the working-class population which no other communion possesses. Simultaneous with these developments is the expansion of the British Empire and the gradual breakdown of geographical and religious barriers to Christianity.

These are the opportunities of the Church of England. Unfortunately, the dangers are not less patent. The reaction against the political conception and associations of the Church, great stumbling-blocks to its progress in the past, is creating amongst some of its best members a tendency to complete divorce from the State; which will mean an historic uprooting, with possible disasters to the State, if not equally to the Church, out of any man's power to gauge. Liturgical formulæ, susceptible, we cannot help holding, intentionally made susceptible, of two different, though not morally contradictory, applications, are being pressed by the supporters of either view to the exclusion of the other. Authority is plainly breaking up, with chaos as result. Paradoxical as it may appear, these pains and troubles are the symptoms of life and growth. So long as the Church was asleep, nobody troubled himself as to the meaning of formulæ; hence there was no friction and no appeal to authority, so that the defects in the tribunal appealed to were unperceived. Externally, the Church of England simply was a political institution. The quickening of the dormant spirit within could not be without convulsion; for it put the Church out of harmony with her old setting. How shall harmony be re-established without dissolution? Last, there is the spirit of the new learning and its external result. The old conventional claims of religion, at any rate of the Church, have lost their hold. Either something more real or total indifference will take their place. These are some of the Church's dangers with the problems they present. In our view no communion is so likely to be able to solve them as the Church of England, if wisely guided.

And this is the moment when we lose one of our wisest of guides! We may say of the clergy of the Church now, as Mr. Morley in his "Cromwell" says of the Westminster divines: "There were learned scholars and theologians, but no governing Churchman of the grand type rose up among them—nobody who at the same time comprehended states and the foundation of states, explored creeds and the sources of creeds, knew man and the heart of man."

Mandell Creighton *was* a governing Churchman. He was worthy to take his place beside the great Churchmen of the old days. He would have made a great Chancellor or a great judge. In ability, he might stand in a group with Beckett, Wolsey, Richelieu, Mazarin, Alberoni; and in character above all but Beckett. The Bishop of London knew men and women; he knew the world. He had not spent the years of a long college life merely in settling with final accuracy a date here, a place or a name there. He read history as he read living men and women; which gave him a breadth of view almost unequalled. To him no event, no contention stood for one moment alone. Everything was in a series, which gave it its proportion. At once one sees how this was peculiarly the kind of mind and the kind of training required to meet the ecclesiastical problems of the time. And Dr. Creighton was meeting them, as perhaps no other Bishop of London has met them. A courtier's manner added to a scholar's learning enabled Dr. Creighton to get a real hold of elements in the population not usually much attracted by the Church. See, for instance, what regard he won from the scientists and the Board School teachers. The speech he made two years since at the annual meeting of the Royal Society will go on working to the benefit of religion year after year.

Of course, the Bishop had to pay the price of ability; the able man who does not, gets off payment only by dishonesty. He knew the world; therefore he was said to be of it; he could speak epigrammatically, therefore he could not be serious; he would not go the whole length with any party, therefore he was a Gallio. He was learned in pagan lore and talked more of secular than sacred things, therefore he was not spiritual. Undoubtedly he did leave all these impressions at times on very honest clergymen; and we are willing to admit it was a pity he did. Impatience with stupidity is a weakness in a statesman; but surely if not an amiable, it is at any rate a plausible weakness. We fancy that Dr. Creighton was on the whole more attractive to laymen than to clergymen. Anyway, who can help understanding and sympathising if, after a day

with little men of many words, ritualists at one ear and low churchmen at another, this man of wide views and much knowledge should, with a felt if not expressed "plague on both your houses," have fled from ecclesiastical dispute to the relief of some wholly mundane book? We could wish some of the clergy had more acquaintance with such mundane books.

It is impossible to say the Bishop's work was done; it would not have been done had he lived for a hundred years. Perhaps, he would have done more, if he had done less; but he would not have left so strenuous an example. He must not for a moment be thought of as dead; his place is among the living. His example may not have been purchased too dearly, even though it leaves the Church, apart from the Archbishop of Canterbury, a figure now yet more lonely in its greatness, without his equal.

CHURCH COUNCILS.

IF the increase of the episcopate would help to strengthen the authority of the bishops, it is to the establishment of Church Councils that we must look to enhance the influence and to stimulate the interest of the laity. But the two reforms are not of equal simplicity. For while the founding of bishoprics is mainly a matter of money and raises no serious controversy, the constitution of Church Councils involves anxious and disputed questions.

First, no council whether parochial diocesan or central can be set up until it has been determined who the laity are or rather who among them are entitled to be represented on such councils. Are all the adult laity both men and women who are members of the Church—that is who have been baptized—to vote, or are only men, or only ratepayers, or only those who declare themselves adherents, or only those who are communicants? These questions have already been much discussed, and will doubtless be much more discussed before a decision is arrived at. It would seem that on grounds both of principle and of expediency women ought not to vote for Church Councils. It is surely impossible to read what St. Paul has written about men and women without coming to the conclusion that he would have rejected any proposal to give to women a position of ecclesiastical authority. Why after all may women not be ordained? The rule, we may be sure, is not an arbitrary or capricious one. It rests on some principle—on some real and essential distinction between the sexes. Would it not be hazardous to assume that that distinction precluded women from ordination but did not preclude their holding offices of authority among the laity? It is to say the least much more probable that what unfits them for ordination unfits them also to exercise government within the Church in any office. And if there are objections to women voting for Church Councils on grounds of principle, there are also objections on grounds of policy. One great purpose in setting up councils at all, is to interest laymen and to make them use and regard such councils as their authentic organs. But what would they feel if they were outvoted by women, if they knew that the declarations and resolutions of the councils spoke not their minds but the minds of women? They would not attempt to conceal their disgust and contempt; and the councils so far from fulfilling any useful purpose, would be abused, sneered at and disregarded. And it is not merely possible but likely that women would outvote men. Women take notoriously a warmer interest in Church matters than do men. They would be more anxious to have and more zealous to exercise their suffrage. In politics women's interest is no stronger than men's, nor do they generally hold opinions sharply differing from those of their husbands or brothers. Whatever political franchise women might enjoy, there is no reason to think that they would ordinarily vote in opposition to the convictions of the men who were nearly related to them. There would be no sex vote. But in religious matters it might easily happen that women might vote in a large and enthusiastic body on one side, while the smaller number of men who took the trouble to vote at all

supported the other side. It can hardly be doubted that the council elected at such a poll would be an unmitigated danger and injury to the Church.

If it be clear that only men ought to vote, it yet remains difficult to determine who among men should be deemed to be qualified. Some are inclined to claim that every baptized man should have a vote. But the absurdity of attempting to ignore non-conformity and, proceeding as though it did not exist, to admit those who are notoriously bitter against the Church to a share in directing her affairs is so manifest that this solution of the problem is not likely to be adopted. Others more reasonably suggest that a declaration of adherence to the Church should be required, which would, it is thought, exclude Nonconformists. But apart from some difficulties as to what acts would justify a conscientious person in describing himself as an adherent, it cannot be denied that the argument in favour of insisting on a communicant qualification is much stronger than seems to be often recognised. A non-communicating adherent is evidently guilty of serious disobedience. It is not merely that he disobeys the very precise injunction of the Prayer Book and disregards the rule of the whole Catholic Church. His practice was unknown in primitive and apostolic times and it was unknown because it involves disobedience to the command of Christ—a command given on the most solemn of occasions. It is this consideration which seems to tell with such singular force in favour of the communicant qualification. All Churchmen, indeed all Christians, who are to be reckoned as religious, however much they may differ about other matters are agreed in thinking that personal loyalty and fidelity to Christ are the very essence of Christianity. But—excuse the disobedient individuals as you may—what kind of loyalty belongs to a Church which treats the persistent and avowed disobedience to a solemn command of Christ as a matter not sufficiently important to disqualify from the ordinary rights and functions of Church membership? And what value would there be in the assistance of persons so disobedient? With what moral authority would they speak? For instance what weight would they have in checking the insubordination and disobedience of the clergy, being themselves offenders of the same class but in a far higher degree? Is it possible to fancy a more tremendous irony than a layman who ignores the command of the Last Supper reproving a clergyman for disobeying the injunctions of his bishop about incense?

Yet against the communicant qualification there is something to be said and in particular one argument of great weight. It is widely felt that to make Communion a test even for an ecclesiastical vote would be to run risk of profaning the rite. Probably this apprehension is due to the natural horror inspired by the old sacramental test for secular employments. If so the fear is not a very logical one. For between a sacramental test for a Church vote and one for a secular post there is a real distinction both in regard to the appropriateness of the qualification and to the temptation to a profane Communion. But the fact that the feeling exists and is found among those who are themselves devout communicants is a consideration of great weight against establishing such a test. It would seem harsh to burden religious consciences with an uneasy feeling that they were receiving the Sacrament partly because they wished to qualify as voters for a Church Council. Even though scruples of the kind would be unreasonable, it is hard not to respect them. If a method can be devised of avoiding the test without seeming to sanction negligent disobedience to the command of Christ and the laws of the Church, it will be welcome. A promising suggestion has been made that the qualification for an ecclesiastical vote shall be the same as the qualification for Communion. That is to say that every man who has been confirmed (and who has not been excommunicated) shall have a vote. This would direct attention to the duty of communicating and not seem to palliate neglect without actually making the reception of the Sacrament a qualifying test. Perhaps this may prove the best solution of the difficulty.

If the different questions which arise in respect of the layman's qualification can be settled, the main obstacle

in the way of setting up Church Councils will have been overcome. Other difficult controversies will doubtless arise when it comes to be considered what measure of power and authority shall be given to parochial or diocesan councils or to the Convocations strengthened by Houses of Laymen. At present however discussion as to the powers of Church Councils is premature. For it will certainly be wiser to set them up at first merely as consultative bodies. If they inspire confidence in that capacity, it will be time enough to consider what positive authority ought to be entrusted to them. Their simple existence by focussing and educating lay opinion will help to reduce to due proportion the inflated figure of the Rector.

HUGH CECIL.

THE CHIMING AND THE RHYMING OF THE BELLS.

THE inside of a belfry, if one is alone with the bells or to speak by the card with the bell-ropes, is at all times an odd kind of place—a place to give rise to queer associations, reminiscences, imaginings. One thinks, of course, of the poet from whose lines the heading of this article is taken; of the bell that tolled for the massacre of St. Bartholomew; of the dreadful bell that frightened Cyprus from its propriety until the valiant Othello silenced it; of the terrible adventure of "The Man in the Bell" told with a certain Poe-like power by bright broken Maginn—in short of numberless bells that have played an important part in actual life and in frequently more actual fiction. Then there is something outlandish and uncanny in the very aspect of the place. The ropes, dangling motionless, somehow carry with them a suggestion of a huge and malevolent spider's web, and the small silent bells used (if they are ever in order) for practice, hanging up high aloft, have a weird and elfin look, especially to the layman who does not know the reason of their existence. As you look up at these small silent images of real bells full of voices for rejoicing or lamenting you may fall to wishing that these latter were, like those at Antwerp, played or rung by means of a key-board and that like one of Dr. George MacDonald's heroes you had both the art and the opportunity to set them in most musical motion. In that case however it might be well, lest your wish were suddenly granted, to wish also that you might escape the embarrassing consequences which followed on the hero's giving way to his very natural impulse. And then again the sense of awe which clings to many things and symbols ecclesiastical may suddenly be modified, as your eye rests on mural tablets recording how on such and such occasions such and such ringers rung a wondrous number of changes at a spell in a wondrously short time. For as everybody knows, at any rate in some vague way, there is as much art in good bell-ringing as shall be found in any pursuit of man that exercises both body and mind.

When one visits a belfry on some special and august occasion in company with the ringers themselves, the imagination is of course affected in a different way, and this difference is not least notable if the occasion happens to be the ringing out of an old and the ringing in of a new year and century. At such a time the mood of the guest in the belfry is probably like that of his hosts, sociable and cheerful, and the visitor who has everything to learn will probably find, when it is time to cease talking and he must ask no more questions for information, that, in spite of pertinacity on one side and ready response on the other, he has really learnt but one thing well, that thing being the extent and depth of his own ignorance. When this time has come it is his chief business to squeeze himself sardine-like into a small corner, in a belfry, which is by no means vast, so that he may nowise interfere with the movements of the ringers. If this is his second or third visit to the belfry in order to see as well as hear the ringing of the chimes, whether at midnight or at some more commonplace season, he will start possessed of a certain amount of superficial acquaintance with the methods adopted and pursued. He will have been informed for instance that accurate ringing in no sort of way depends upon ear, but is entirely a matter of eye (rope-eye to give it a name current among ringers) since what each one of

the band has to do is to keep his or her eye intently fixed on the right-hand neighbour's rope, and from watching that regulate his or her own movements. Ladies it may be noted make very excellent ringers and are said to be as a rule apter and quicker learners than men. The visitor will also be prepared for the formula which precedes the ringing "Treble is beginning (or starting)" followed, as the treble ringer observes that all are ready, by the further words very clearly given out "Treble has begun" which set the whole peal in motion.

Then the visitor has nothing to do but to watch with all his eyes and listen with all his ears, and if he has a care and taste for music he will find this a most interesting occupation. If this is not his first time of presence at such a function he will not be astonished at hearing every now and then a curious monosyllable which out-of-doors, or indoors out of a belfry, might seem to indicate calling for a person or a dog, uttered swiftly either by a male voice or in charming soprano or contralto notes, as the case may be. This monosyllable is *Bob*, and is the word of command for a "change." Change-ringing is stated by Fabian Stedman, author of "Tintinnologia," the first known book on campanology, to have begun in the seventeenth century, but an expert writer on the subject finds traces of it in Ralph Roister Doister (1553). So long however as the bells are a-ringing our listener and watcher will not trouble himself with any reflections on such matters as this, nor will he have any opportunity of inquiring as to the existing number of "changes" or as to how many of their names contain the mystic word *Bob*. He may on a former visit, especially if he has anything of a fanciful temperament, have been affected by a curious impression which will now return to him as to the sound, or it might be more appropriate to say the voice of the bells. For this impression is nothing else than that in the mighty mingling of all the different tones heard near above one's head there is a *vox humana* as like to human utterance as the stop on any of the famous organs, but both in kind and degree quite different from them all. For it is not like the voice of any single singer nor like the voices of a trained choir. It is more the speech resolved into musical sound of a vast crowd half perhaps rather than wholly human, whose accents vary from the brightest joyousness to the deepest melancholy, from notes of solemn warning to cries of terrifying denunciation, and all this of course with an infinity of half and quarter shades of expression. If you speak of this to any of the ringers, gentle or simple, you will probably awake in them no emotion but surprise. It is quite possible that at least some of them may once have had the same impression, of which the very memory has been dulled by constant familiarity. Or it may be that from the first moment of beginning to learn bell-ringing the faculties are entirely concentrated on the lesson and on putting what is learnt into practice. And it is only when you are as close to the bells as you are in the belfry that you encounter this experience.

All these things which may be felt on any visit are naturally intensified when the occasion is so rare as the opening of a new century, or even the ringing in of a new year. To begin with the bells are muffled, with pieces of leather tied to one side of the clappers. A muffled peal is rung from eleven till five minutes to twelve. While the passing bell is being tolled for the death of the old year, the muffles are removed from the other bells. As soon as twelve o'clock has struck, the remaining muffle is removed and the bells ring out a clear instead of a muffled peal. It may be imagined that there is in the change a certain awesome joyousness which appeals powerfully to the emotions. At the last stroke of twelve all the ringers wish each other a Happy New Year, and thus, in a belfry, ends the old, and so begins the new.

WALTER HERRIES POLLOCK.

SIR W. B. RICHMOND AT THE NEW GALLERY.

ALL those, I am sure, who were forced to protest against the decoration of St. Paul's would have been happy to let Sir W. B. Richmond's painting

outside of that church remain undiscussed. There are many people who admire him as a portrait-painter; that being so, he is the proper person to paint portraits for them, and it is no one's business to dispute their private taste. If one could share the taste it would be agreeable indeed, and I wish it were possible to come away from the New Gallery praising the portrait-painter as heartily as one has condemned the decorator. If that is not possible we may gladly admit his capacity to produce, in this branch of painting, what is asked of him, but we cannot ignore the challenge implied in exhibiting the portraits side by side with the designs as if they strengthened the case for the latter. Their absolute value then becomes a public question.

Sir William Richmond would appear to have sent to the New Gallery his whole life's work; the three galleries are thickly packed, and the balcony as well. A very great painter would suffer by such wholesale exhibition; when he has made his most rigorous selection, some Sibyl should still be called in to cut it down by two-thirds and enhance the residue. Here the interstices between pictures are filled with pochades as if the studio had been clean swept to its uttermost corner. These studies from Nature, however, are very conclusive evidence of the quality of a painter's vision acting on matter not digested by others. They yield a great many motiveless ugly scraps and many other views whose motive is but half pictorial, since they seem rather the result of the painter's being in famous places than in picture-yielding places. In a word the imaginative power, the gift for beauty-making out of things seen, is feeble; the matter is accidental or aggrandised rather by the title than the picture. The defect is here that blossoms in so unpictorial an invention as the *Audience of the "Agamemnon"*. The picture somewhat dulls the title. Take that away, and what can we read from the grimaces of the models in this plan of a theatre? There remain a few fair, ordinary sketches, such as hundreds of moderns produce.

The least imaginative, the least picture-making of men, is susceptible in some degree to the beauty of women, and Sir W. B. Richmond in painting the portraits of beautiful women is on safer ground because one element of beauty is ready-made. Moreover he has a real gift for seizing a likeness, so that we know when a beautiful woman has sat to him. *Fiammetta* (43) and other portraits prove this. But he was doomed by defect of imagination to confound the picture of a beautiful woman with a beautiful picture. His interest in form weakens when he has secured the minimum of traits that give a likeness, and his idea of the way to proceed to make the picture more beautiful is not to render the vision more beautiful and profound, but to add more beautiful things, more statements of pretty objects, round about the shallow statement of a pretty face. His taste in paint is for the rather vaseline-like quality of Leighton, so far as we can be sure of his preference. The sentiment of the heads is lavishly in the sense of the person sitting; a society beauty is painted very much as she may be conjectured to see herself in her glass. A curious result is that by far the best head in the exhibition is Mr. Holman Hunt's (the earlier No. 6); the energetic honest realism of the man seems to have transfused itself into the impressionable painter. If Sir W. B. Richmond had been politic he would have allowed this head only, along with the early portrait of three little girls painted under the same influence, to appear casually in some exhibition, concealing the rest. I remembered the *Andrew Lang* as the best I had seen in old days, and it seems to me a very happy likeness, giving in pose and expression the bright nonchalance of the man.

If this impressionability to the sentiment of the sitter counts for something in the portraits, still more does the influence of other painters show in these and the subject pictures. If the painting of the nineteenth century should ever pass into the obscurity that veils the authorship of many Renaissance pictures and become a field for speculative attribution, Sir W. B. Richmond will puzzle the students horribly. There will be rival schools of interpretation, one of which will attribute all his paintings to men like Leighton, Burne-Jones, and

Watts, telling us, like Mr. Cook, that we must not scruple "because they are not good enough;" other schools will stake their faith on one Richmond, the Leighton - Richmond, Burne - Jones - Richmond or Watts - Richmond, and use his name as a *dépôt* for such works of those artists as it is inconvenient to admit. And the Morelli of the future may be pardoned if he refuses to see the same painter in the brown *Hermes* and the iridescent *Bath of Venus*, or to find common terms between the *Holman Hunt* and the neighbouring *Miss Muriel Wilson* (8). A critic who had carried out the research of this strange versatility more patiently than myself pointed to several Millais, to a Walter Crane in 127, a Sant and an Oules not far away, and, as the result of a visit to Germany, a Lenbach in the portrait of Bismarck.

I am not so foolish as to complain of a painter that he has imitated another. Imitation is necessary, universal, and the one road towards originality. The greatest Masters are Master-thieves. A teacher of drawing used to impress on his pupils the maxim "Steal: but steal from the rich." He might have added as secondary rules; Do not steal incompatibles, and Do not steal the case and leave the jewel. The ethics of art proceed on a fundamental principle of stealing, but the appropriations are justified in the degree in which they are fruitful, engendering something new, or further a force that has a direction of its own. If the artistic force is so wavering and undefined that it is at the mercy of all contemporary suggestions, of suggestions coming from quite opposite characters, and takes on these suggestions rather as trimmings than as profound impulses, then one is uncomfortably aware of the sources. Now Sir W. B. Richmond suffers the contagion of art in its diluted contemporary forms; he is rendered immune to the virus of Athens by the vaccine of Leighton, and takes his draught of Michael Angelo in an emulsion of Burne-Jones. An example of this loss and dilution of influences will be found in one of the designs for S. Paul's in the balcony, the Angel at the gate of Paradise, which belongs to the numerous family of Michael Angelo's *Pensieroso*. It is still more like the version of that figure by the French sculptor Dubois, who put a sword in one of the hands, and by various small changes emptied it of all significance. A photograph of Dubois' *Courage Militaire* is very usefully printed side by side with *Il Pensieroso* in the January number of *Scribner's* to illustrate Mr. Brownell's article on Rodin, and it would be a profitable lesson to draw out in detail the changes made by the modern and their effect. In the original the huge limbs, the great helmet, the folds of drapery add to the heavy occupation and brooding of the figure. In Dubois' version the heavy figure is halfway to sprightliness and all to pieces. In Sir W. Richmond's the disintegration of the pose is carried further and the head and wings in the manner of Burne-Jones neutralise the brawn and muscles of the limbs. Muscles generally in Sir W. Richmond's work appear to be applied as a kind of decoration; certain figures are dressed in them as if, like togas or doublets, they were the fashion of a period rather than the constant mechanism of the body. It is only fair, after dwelling on the influences, to give credit for what is thoroughly original. No one, it is safe to say, anticipated Sir William Richmond in the design of the *Sarpedon* carried pick-a-back, or in that of the *Icarus* (143).

The exhibition deepens the puzzle how Sir W. B. Richmond came to be entrusted with the work at S. Paul's. The distaste of artists and critics counts perhaps for very little in such matters, but where is the evidence that in any quarter, outside of his vogue as a portrait-painter, he had the reputation that would excuse, if not justify, the appointment? The greater number of his ambitious pieces must be here, and with few exceptions they have been left upon his hands. Two of these are pictures bought for Liverpool and Birmingham, but the Academy, which is certainly not difficult in judging the merits of its members, has not bought one of these performances for the Chantrey collection. This is not in itself evidence against these pictures, but in the face of so general a coldness, we cannot suffi-

ciently admire the conviction arrived at by a clerical committee and expressed so freely that they had secured a great decorative artist, an artist, be it remembered, whose decorative power had not been tested on any building known to us, and was first tried on our greatest. If decoration consists in fitting triangular wings into triangular spaces, and in reducing the human figure to diagrams such as are shown here in the full-sized cartoons, figures whose every function is frozen save a dreadful power of ogling, then "decorative" must be the word. D. S. M.

THE BETRAYAL OF ENGLISH OPERA.

A PARTICULARLY malicious, heartless, cruel canard has been set winging over London and Paris during the past week. Nearly everyone has been taken in by it. Even the "Daily Telegraph" has devoted a column to it, and we have been gratified with the melancholy spectacle of an aged musical critic chortling at the prospect of London having less of the "Ring" in future. This, however, is not the canard. It bears more hardly on Mr. Higgins and Earl de Grey than that. Certainly we should think less of them if they determined to give us less of Wagner in future, and very soon the state of the box-office would make them think less of themselves as business men. But what would we think of them, what could they think of themselves, if this preposterous canard were really true—if it were fact that Covent Garden had been handed over to Messrs. Messenger and Albert Carré of the Paris Opéra Comique, if, that is, English Opera had actually been sold or given to the French? In the English papers chiefly Mr. Messenger's name has been mentioned, but from Paris and from Brussels the news—the false news of course—comes to me that Mr. Albert Carré is at the bottom of the whole scheme and will in future be the real ruler of Covent Garden. I refuse to believe it. Charles II., it is said, sold his country to France, but at least he had the excuse of receiving a fair price. Why on earth should Lord de Grey and Mr. Higgins sell or give English Opera to France? Fatuous things have been done at Covent Garden in the past; doubtless fatuous things are being arranged there now; fatuous things will be done in the future. But surely nothing so fatuous as this will be done! The thing is a horrible invention of someone who hates Mr. Higgins, Lord de Grey and, not least, Mr. Messenger.

Let us consider what it would mean. There is nothing to be said against Mr. Messenger. He is a fair conductor of perhaps the tenth rank; he has composed light operas—"La Basoche" amongst others—which have neither enjoyed any great success in this country nor deserved it; he is the husband of Hope Temple, who, it may be recalled, was rather popular with the last musical generation as a writer of cheap drawing-room ballads. Are these proper qualifications for the "musical manager" of what might easily be the first opera-house in the world? This canard is the more cruel towards Mr. Messenger because it has led him to talk to an interviewer. Mr. Messenger says he means to do at Covent Garden what he did at the Opéra Comique. Well, I admit the Opéra Comique to be much better than the Grand Opéra. But I deny that it is good enough for London; and as for the mighty transformation effected by Mr. Messenger in Paris, I can assure him that I heard better performances at his theatre before the days of Mr. Carré than any it has been my good or bad fortune to hear since. I repeat that Mr. Messenger is a very good man in his way. So is Mr. Ivan Caryll a very good man in his way, and Mr. James Glover in his, and Mr. Jacobi in his. Mr. Leslie Stuart is also quite good, and he has certainly invented better tunes than any of Mr. Messenger's; and the same is true of Mr. Sydney Jones and of a dozen other Englishmen and Americans who have written as pretty operettas as "La Basoche." It is obvious that before going to a Frenchman, before making Covent Garden a sort of outhouse attached to the Opéra Comique, before throwing English opera to a mediocre gentleman filled with French prejudices and with all a Frenchman's contempt for English music—it is obvious before doing

this that Mr. Glover, or Mr. Stuart, or Mr. Jacobi, or Mr. Ivan Caryll would have been offered the post of musical manager of our English opera. Seeing that it has not, so far as is known, been offered to any of them, it is a patent falsehood that it has been given to Mr. Messenger.

After all, Mr. Messenger is not the point. It matters nothing whether Mr. Messenger or another of his race comes to dominate our English opera. I am trying to show on artistic and patriotic grounds that this deplorable, shocking report cannot have any foundation in fact. Let us consider for a moment what would happen if a Frenchman should be appointed to Covent Garden. To begin with, a preference would inevitably be given to French singers. That we do not want. With French singers would come a revival of the claqué. That also we do not want. With French singers, whether the director be English or French, would come what we desire least of all, French modes of securing engagements. I by no means contend that all is as it should be at Covent Garden at present; but, knowing fully what goes on inside every French opera-house, I declare that it would be an incalculable misfortune if Covent Garden adopted French methods. In Germany and England it is possible for a woman to sing at the opera without receiving constant insults. In France it is not. And this will be denied only by those who know nothing whatever about it, or knowing, speak tongue in cheek. There is not a clean opera-house in France, and indeed few Frenchmen appear to think that it would be better if opera were a little cleaner there. Apart from this aspect of the question, there are very few French artists wanted in London; we have already heard the best of them. We do not wish to hear the noble army of bleating tenors, voiceless sopranos and raucous basses who so delight Parisian ears nightly at the Opéra and the Opéra Comique. Nor do we wish to hear the operas they sing in. Mr. Messenger has spoken of introducing variety at Covent Garden. If the programme at the Opéra Comique is any guide to his taste, I suppose he means he would (were he really appointed director here) give us "Carmen" three times a week with "Louise" occasionally as the "variety." There is one thing to be thankful for: in this Puritan country we cannot have the intolerable "Samson" of Saint-Saëns inflicted on us. On the other hand, any French director is certain to inundate us with Charpentier, d'Indy, Bruneau, and the rest of the unspeakably ugly and unoriginal. But in addition to all this, there is the matter of the influence of the foreigner on English music to be considered. Are we for ever to be under the foreign dominion; would Mr. Higgins and Lord de Grey think for a moment of conserving an ordering of things that is villainous and fatal to the growth of an English school of music? From the days of Handel the foreign musician has been our ruin. Everlastingly some German or Frenchman or Italian has had his foot on the neck of English music; everlastingly we have been smothered under foreign mediocrities and eaten up by them. Is this never to end? Is no Englishman ever to be given a chance to devote his life to his art in his own country? The true battle-cry of the younger English musicians to-day ought to be "Out with the foreigner!" I shall be told this is insular. Very well, then, it is insular. By all means let us be insular until we get rid of the curse that prevents us from having a music of our own. If I were controller of the Opera Syndicate, no foreigner should be given a post of any sort until I had ransacked England and satisfied myself that no Englishman was available. Does the Syndicate do that? Naturally not; the Syndicate would scorn the notion of hearing the Manners Company; the Syndicate is satisfied that no plain Mr. or Miss or Mrs. can be a fine artist; and the Syndicate goes to Brussels and Paris for its artists and does not always fail to show how little it knows of its business by the choice it makes. In spite of this I refuse to believe that the choice of artists and of the operas to be given at Covent Garden will be left in the hands of a Frenchman. A very brief spell of French operas and French artists will make the Syndicate's pockets ache. The British public is foolish. At present it practically pays the

salaries of several Continental opera-houses. But then it does hear a good deal of the kind of music it likes. I am firmly convinced that it will never pay the salaries of French artists and at the same time put up with a lot of bad French music. And that is what it will be asked to do if Mr. Carré and Mr. Messenger ever get control of Covent Garden. But they never will get control of Covent Garden. The Syndicate will never fall so low as to betray English opera to the French.

J. F. R.

"THE MERCHANT OF VENICE."

THE higher you rate Shakespeare, the more deeply must you deplore his habit of taking his plots *là où il les trouvait*. It is no excuse for him to say that the Elizabethan public wanted him to confine himself to the stupid stories with which it was familiar, and that, unless he had obeyed it, he could never have caught its ear. For a second-rate dramatist that excuse were valid enough. But Shakespeare was not a second-rate dramatist. With his transcendent power, he could have imposed on his time anything, however new, and unexpected, and unwanted. That he chose the line of lesser resistance, taking for his material whatever would tickle those groundlings for whom he, as a great artist, had so great a contempt, is a fact that must lower him, as a man, in our esteem. Nor is it sound criticism to say that, since he was always prodigal of his genius, never sparing one tittle of his poetry, his sense of character, and his sense of dramatic effect, it matters little on what foundation he was working. This is an attitude struck by many of his critics. "If," say they, "the result was a series of perfect masterpieces in poetry and drama, we need not complain about the method by which it was obtained." The answer to that is simple: Shakespeare did not produce a series of perfect masterpieces. Throughout the fabric of his work you will find much that is tawdry, irrational, otiose—much that is, however shy you may be of admitting that it is, tedious. And these cankers are, plainly, the result of his plagiaristic method. A transcendent poet may, as Shakespeare did, glorify with transcendent poetry, and so make immortal, stupid stories conceived by stupid writers as a quick means of catching a stupid public. He may, if he be, like Shakespeare, a great dramatist and seer of hearts, insinuate into these stories a great deal of true drama, of true life. But he cannot purge them of their general stupidity. In so far as he adheres to that in which stupidity is inherent, he is writing stupid plays, and is wasting his genius. Conceive, if you can, that the twentieth century will evolve for us as great a dramatic poet as Shakespeare. And then, if you can, conceive that this gentleman will be so weak or so modest as to found his plays on the farces of the late Mr. H. J. Byron, and on the melodramas of the late Mr. Pettitt, and on the romantic dramas of the late Mr. Wills and the present Mr. Henry Hamilton. And then conceive (what is quite inconceivable) that this will not be a pity, and that all the critics will not say "We cannot but hold it to be matter for regret that Mr. —, instead of inventing for himself (and who is potentially more inventive than he?) stories in which his unexampled powers of eloquence, of wit and humour and pathos, of characterisation, and of dramatic effect, would have their full dramatic scope, still persists in taking ready-made material of an inferior kind, which, if we may be permitted to say so, cannot but cramp his genius and render it less effective than it would otherwise, in our opinion, be. It may seem presumptuous in us to hint" &c., &c. It may seem presumptuous in me to make a similar hint in reference to Shakespeare. Nevertheless, I make it.

"The Merchant of Venice," which I have just seen under the auspices of Mr. Benson at the Comedy Theatre, is a particularly sad instance of the way in which Shakespeare wasted so much of his time. What would one not give for the play which Shakespeare might have written about a persecuted but obdurate usurer? And yet how lightly one would forego the privilege of witnessing "The Merchant of Venice"! Indeed, but for the purple patches of poetry in it, and but for the

character of Shylock, which betrays to us the mastery of its delineator whenever its delineator dared to deviate from "The Jew and Ptolome" into his own genius, one would much rather not see the play at all. It is doubly tedious, being founded not only on "The Jew and Ptolome" but also on that old legend of "the caskets." Thus, besides the eternal double couple of comic lovers going through their frigid Elizabethan complications, we have the terribly tedious exposure of "the greediness of worldly choosers." In its original literary form this moral legend was delightful enough. (Those of my readers who care to acquaint themselves with it may do so by dipping into Joannis Damasceni *Opera*, pp. 824, 825, ed. Basil, 1575.) But for purposes of drama it is quite impossible, in any variation whatsoever. A suitor is confronted with three caskets; the first is of gold, the second of silver, the third of lead; one of them contains the portrait of the lady for whose hand he is suing, and if he "spots" it his suit shall be granted. After some hesitation, he chooses the gold casket. Well! in a written legend you would accept this idea readily enough. But when you see across footlights, in a play meant to be realistic, a man of flesh and blood communing with himself before the caskets, the illusion is gone. You simply think him a fool to doubt for one moment that the portrait is in the leaden casket, and when, like the Prince of Morocco, he selects the gold one. . . . "Inconsistencies," says an eminent editor of Shakespeare, "vanish when [they are] 'oculis subjecta fidelibus';" and the Prince of Morocco and the Prince of Arragon become as real personages as Antonio or Bassanio, when they appear in flesh and blood on the stage." This, of course, is the exact reverse of the truth. The actor who is cast for the Prince of Morocco is to be sincerely pitied. The better he acts, the more tediously futile is the effect. Mr. Oscar Asche, who is the Prince in the production at the Comedy, is a very good actor, and thus the futility of the effect passes all bounds. Miss Calhoun, who plays Portia, is also to be pitied for her share in this "casket-scene." By dint of hard clowning, or of very exquisitely fantastic comedy, an actress might carry the thing off, to some extent. But Miss Calhoun is not a fantastic comedian, and she is too good an actress to be capable of clowning. She cannot fall below her own level of dignified sincerity; she cannot help being real. Portia being but the conventionally unreal minx not only in this scene but also throughout the rest of the play (except when she masquerades as lawyer), Miss Calhoun has my heart-felt sympathy. She has the additional consolation of looking very distinguished—Venice incarnate, one might say—in her robe of white embroidered with gold roses and black roses, and with large corals at her throat, and a tress of pearls woven into her towered-up hair.

As I have suggested, the character of Shylock does in some measure redeem the piece. One can see that Shakespeare, had he not clogged himself with "The Jew and Ptolome," would have made of him a fine creation, and would have written round him a fine play. As it was, Shakespeare fell between two stools. The groundlings of his day must have been mystified by the dignity, by the righteous indignation, by the human pathos, which he foisted into Shylock's character; whilst, on the other hand, his desire to please the groundlings by adhering to the scheme of the original play, and the consequent necessity for making Shylock a blood-thirsty old savage, must have prevented him, as it prevents you and me, from gaining any personal satisfaction from his work. That Shakespeare himself sympathised with Shylock no thoughtful critic can have any doubt. Only, he had not the courage of his sympathy; or, rather, the form of his play prevented him from showing it except furtively, at odd moments. The result is that Shylock is neither fish, flesh, nor good red herring. He is inconsistent, not in the Aristotelian sense of consistently-inconsistent. He wobbles, not as a human wobbler, but as a puppet pulled by two showmen on bad terms with each other. He is a fine figure and a bogey alternately. His speeches are mutually destructive. You cannot reconcile his various aspects. Accordingly, the part is not an easy one to play. To make it effective, an actor must slur and blur one side

of it or the other. Which side is slurred and blurred depends on the fashion of the time. Among the Elizabethans, who thought the Jews merely absurd and remote monsters, the part of Shylock was played in a spirit of grotesque farce. In later times, when the Jews began to make their power definitely felt in England, and were feared and hated as a coming terror, Shylock became a melodramatic villain. Nowadays, when we all have a very great admiration and sympathy for the Jews, (the admiration and sympathy which is always given to people who have us in their power,) Shylock has become a romantically pathetic hero. It is on those lines that Mr. Benson, after the manner of Sir Henry Irving, is now playing him—and playing him, it seems to me, very well indeed. He puts into his performance much more of imagination, and much less of angularity, than is his wont.

MAX.

UNIVERSITY ASSURANCE.

THE valuation returns of the University Life Assurance Society for the five years up to the end of April 1900 illustrate in very happy fashion the sound position that the society occupies, and the good work which it accomplishes for its policy-holders. For many years past its liabilities have been valued on the basis of interest at the rate of 3 per cent. per annum; but on the present occasion it has strengthened its reserves by assuming interest at only $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Very wisely this change has been gradually prepared for by increasing the amount carried forward at previous valuations, a course it has been able to adopt in spite of declaring an annual bonus at the exceptionally high rate of £2 10s. per cent. per annum in 1885 and 1890 and of £3 in 1895.

The change in the basis of valuation has involved an addition to the reserves of over £41,000, but in spite of this it has maintained the rate of bonus declared in 1885 and 1890, namely £2 10s. per cent., although it has not been able to equal the bonus results of 1895. To declare a £3 bonus would have meant having a surplus for division greater by about £22,000 than the surplus actually divided, but as £41,000 was absorbed in strengthening the reserves, and as £57,000 was carried forward, it is obvious that a £3 bonus would have been possible, had not the directors wisely decided to consider the future, rather than the present, and to keep the society in a position of exceptional financial strength and security.

The business of the University is small, since the average annual premium income is only about £54,000. The expenses amount to a little over 14 per cent. of the premiums, and somewhat exceed the provision that is made for future expenses. A small reserve for this purpose is an almost necessary consequence of assuming a low rate of interest in valuing the liabilities, and is more than compensated for by the greater difference between the rates of interest assumed and realised. The average yield upon the total funds during the past five years was £3 16s. 2d. per cent. per annum, which shows a contribution to surplus from this cause of £1 6s. per cent. per annum of the funds.

The mortality experience during the five years has been good, since the expected amount was £304,235, and the actual claims, excluding bonuses, £270,264. The good results obtained by the policy-holders are indicated by the fact that every £1,000 of original assurance that became a claim by death during the five years under participating policies was increased by £657 in bonus additions.

The actual surplus exhibited by the valuation was £180,092, of which £110,593 was distributed among participating policy-holders and £12,288 went to the proprietors. The relative proportions of the divided surplus allotted to the assured and to the shareholders respectively were 90 per cent. and 10 per cent., a proportion which is in full accord with the best modern practice of assurance offices in this respect.

There is a personal element about this valuation which adds to its interest. Mr. H. W. Andras, who has long been Actuary of the Society, resigned in order to become Actuary and Secretary of the Provident, and it must be satisfactory to him to feel that almost his

last official act for the office was to prepare a valuation placing its reserves on a basis of financial strength, which only a few other insurance companies have attained to. He has been succeeded by Mr. Todhunter, whose reputation among those who are best qualified to judge is of a very high order.

In the present day when push and publicity are so often thought to be essential qualifications for commercial success it is satisfactory to find an office like the University pursuing its quiet way, and accomplishing results very seldom equalled by other companies. Its association with the Universities brings it a very good class of business, and the improved position that it now occupies should make it more than ever popular among those who are qualified for the privilege of membership.

CORRESPONDENCE.

FROM THE CHINESE POINT OF VIEW.—II.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

SIR,—In my last letter I endeavoured to give some general account of the salient differences between your civilisation and ours. Such differences have led inevitably to conflict; and recent events might seem to give some colour to the idea that in that conflict it is we who have been the aggressors. But nothing in fact can be further from the truth. Left to ourselves, we should never have sought intercourse with the West. We have no motive to do so; for we desire neither to proselytise nor to trade. We believe, it is true, that our religion is more rational than yours, our morality higher, and our institutions more perfect; but we recognise that what is suited to us may be ill adapted to others. We do not conceive that we have a mission to redeem or to civilise the world, still less that that mission is to be accomplished by the methods of fire and sword, and we are thankful enough if we can solve our own problems, without burdening ourselves with those of other people.

And as we are not led to interfere with you by the desire to convert you, so are we not driven to do so by the necessities of trade. Economically, as well as politically, we are sufficient to ourselves. What we consume we produce, and what we produce we consume. We do not require, and we have not sought, the products of other nations; and we hold it no less imprudent than unjust to make war on strangers in order to open their markets. A society, we conceive, that is to be politically stable must be economically independent; and we regard an extensive foreign trade as necessarily a source of social demoralisation.

In these, as in all other points, your principle is the opposite to ours. You believe, not only that your religion is the only true one, but that it is your duty to impose it on all other nations, if need be, at the point of the sword. And this motive of aggression is reinforced by another yet more potent. Economically, your society is so constituted that it is constantly on the verge of starvation. You cannot produce what you need to consume, nor consume what you need to produce. It is matter of life and death to you to find markets in which you may dispose of your manufactures, and from which you may derive your food and raw material. Such a market China is, or might be; and the opening of this market is in fact the motive, thinly disguised, of all your dealings with us in recent years. The justice and morality of such a policy I do not propose to discuss. It is, in fact, the product of sheer material necessity, and upon such a ground it is idle to dispute. I shall confine myself therefore to an endeavour to present our view of the situation, and to explain the motives we have for resenting your aggression.

To the ordinary British trader it seems no doubt a strange thing that we should object to what he describes as the opening out of our national resources. Viewing everything, as he habitually does, from the standpoint of profit and loss, he conceives that if it can be shown that a certain course will lead to the increase of wealth, it follows that that is the course that

ought to be adopted. The opening of China to his capital and his trade he believes will have this result; and he concludes that it is our interest to welcome rather than to resist his enterprise. From his point of view he is justified; but his point of view is not ours. We are accustomed, before adopting any grave measure of policy, to estimate its effects not merely on the sum total of our wealth, but (which we conceive to be a very different thing) on our national well-being. You, as always, are thinking of the means of living; we, of the quality of the life lived. And when you ask us, as you do in effect, to transform our whole society, to convert ourselves from a nation of agriculturists to a nation of traders and manufacturers, to sacrifice to an imaginary prosperity our political and economic independence, and to revolutionise not only our industry, but our manners, morals and institutions, we may be pardoned if we first take a critical look at the effects which have been produced among yourselves by the conditions you urge us to introduce in China.

The results of such a survey, we venture to think, are not encouraging. Like the prince in the fable, you seem to have released from his prison the genie of competition, only to find that you are unable to control him. Your legislation for the past hundred years is a perpetual and fruitless effort to regulate the disorders of your economic system. Your poor, your drunk, your incompetent, your sick, your aged, ride you like a nightmare. You have dissolved all human and personal ties, and you endeavour, in vain, to replace them by the impersonal activity of the State. The salient characteristic of your civilisation is its irresponsibility. You have liberated forces you cannot control; you are caught yourselves in your own levers and cogs. In every department of business you are substituting for the individual, the company, for the workman, the tool. The making of dividends is the universal pre-occupation; the well-being of the labourer is no one's concern but the State's. And this concern even the State is incompetent to undertake, for the factors by which it is determined are beyond its control. You depend on variations of supply and demand, which you can neither determine nor anticipate. The failure of a harvest, the modification of a tariff in some remote country, dislocates the industry of millions, thousands of miles away. You are at the mercy of a prospector's luck, an inventor's genius, a woman's caprice. Nay, you are at the mercy of your own instruments. Your capital is alive and cries for food; starve it and it turns and throttles you. You produce, not because you will, but because you must; you consume, not what you choose, but what is forced upon you. Never was any trade so bound as this which you call free; but it is bound, not by a reasonable will, but by the accumulated irrationality of caprice.

Such is the internal economy of your State, as it presents itself to a Chinaman; and not more encouraging is the spectacle of your foreign relations. Commercial intercourse between nations, it was supposed some fifty years ago, would inaugurate an era of peace; and there appear to be many among you who still cling to this belief. But never was belief more plainly contradicted by the facts. The competition for markets bids fair to be a more fruitful cause of war, than was ever in the past the ambition of princes or the bigotry of priests. The people of Europe fling themselves, like hungry beasts of prey, on every yet unexploited quarter of the globe. Hitherto they have confined their acts of spoliation to those whom they regard as outside their own pale. But always, while they divide the spoil, they watch one another with a jealous eye; and sooner or later, when there is nothing left to divide, they will fall upon one another. That is the real meaning of your armaments; you must devour or be devoured. And it is precisely those trade relations, which it was thought would knit you in the bonds of peace, which, by making every one of you cut-throat rivals of the others, have brought you within reasonable distance of a general war of extermination.

In thus characterising your civilisation I am not (I think) carried away by a foolish Chauvinism, I do not conceive the inhabitants of Europe to be naturally more foolish and depraved than those of China. On the contrary, it is a cardinal tenet of our faith, that human

nature is everywhere the same, and that it is circumstances that make it good or bad. If then your economy, internal and external, be really as defective as we conceive, the cause we think must be sought not in any radical defect in your national character, but in precisely those political and social institutions which you are urging us to adopt at home. Can you wonder, in the circumstances, that we resist your influence by any means at our command; and that the more intelligent among us, while they regret the violence to which your agents have been exposed, yet feel that it weighs as nothing in the scale, when set against the intolerable evils which would result from the success of your enterprise?

JOHN CHINAMAN.

RITUALISM AND PRIESTCRAFT.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

7 Upper Brook Street, W., 5 January, 1901.

SIR,—The Vicar of Egham makes two assumptions which I venture to think cannot be substantiated; viz.—

- (1) That only women go to confession.
- (2) That all who do so are "in the power" of the priest. I remember a few years ago seeing a tabulated return of confessions heard in S. Peter's, London Docks, during a given period, in which the confessions of men preponderated in the ratio of (I think) about 8 to 6.

This is doubtless exceptional; but it would probably be found that in any well-worked parish (as S. Bartholomew's, Brighton, where about 10,000 confessions are made annually) the proportion of male to female penitents would be about the same as that of male to female church-goers.

Mr. Nicholson's second assumption probably springs from the common error of confounding confession with direction. But in any case it is difficult to imagine in what way penitents are in their confessor's power: unless Mr. Nicholson believes that even "ritualists" use knowledge acquired in the confessional for purposes of what would really amount to blackmail. Perhaps he will explain.—I am, your faithful servant,

F. C. EDEN.

"RECTORCRAFT."

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

The Athenæum, 7 January.

SIR,—In an article in last week's SATURDAY REVIEW Lord Hugh Cecil says "Remedies for rectorcraft are now what must be sought for." That is quite true. But before suggesting a remedy we must discover the cause of the disease. This appears to me to lie in the substitution of the *parish* for the *diocese* as the centre of ecclesiastical administration. The theory of the Church is that the bishop is the chief pastor of the diocese, and that the clergy, who collectively form his synod, are responsible to him, each for the area entrusted to his charge. The practice in England is to give to each *beneficed* clergyman a freehold in his benefice, of which he can only be deprived by a costly and cumbrous legal process. Lord H. Cecil gives a good illustration of the operation of this system when he says "that the curate now obeys the rector better than the rector does the bishop is not a little because disobedience to the rector means suspending the ordinary administration." But while the Prayer Book and Church history are explicit as to the duty of canonical obedience of priest to bishop, neither recognises any authority of one priest over another. The claim to such authority is a modern anomaly, which has come in with the growth of "rectorcraft" from the cause I have described.

So I would suggest as the "remedy for rectorcraft" the restoration of the Priesthood to its proper place. Let the distinction between "rectors" and "curates," as it at present exists, be abolished. Let every clergyman serve a sufficient apprenticeship, and then take his place as an officer of the diocese to which he belongs. Let him know at once that he is responsible to the Diocesan Synod—consisting of representatives

of clergy and laity—instead of, as now, nominally to his Bishop and practically to himself. This is the system which is actually at work, with the best results, in nearly every branch of the Anglican Church outside England and Wales. Its adoption here would provide not only a "remedy for rectorcraft" but the solution of the troubles which now hamper the work, and threaten the disruption, of the Church. For it would restore to her a living voice which all would hear and an authority which her members would accept.—I am, Sir, yours faithfully,

BARTON R. V. MILLS.

THE PARISH IN CHURCH LIFE.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Holy Trinity Vicarage, Dover,
29 December, 1900.

SIR,—In Lord Hugh Cecil's paragraph about the place of the parish in Church life, he lays his hand on the key to all the pressing problems of Church organisation and government. There are other considerations, but the parish is the most irresistible consideration in the settlement of each problem of Church life. But in one of his many excellent sentences, and that the sentence most relevant to existing difficulties at this moment, Lord Hugh Cecil slips in the word "congregation" instead of "parish" as elsewhere. He says that the clergy who refuse to submit to their bishops are supported by their "congregations." Will he tell us whether the "congregations" in these cases are the flockings together of their several parishes? Theologically his language is perfectly catholic, if he means the gathered faithful of the parish when he uses the word "congregation." The Ordinal, in the charge to priests, uses the word "congregation" for the whole parish committed to a man's charge. Is Lord Hugh Cecil sure that the "congregations" of which he speaks are not more often "segregations," gatherings together of persons, who (though perhaps very correct in dogma and ritual) are systematically schismatising from the various parishes or congregations to which, by God's providence, and on catholic principle, they severally belong?—Your obedient servant,

G. SARSON.

AMERICANISMS AND ENGLISH.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Bryn Maur, Pennsylvania, U.S.A.

12 December, 1900.

SIR,—To think oneself clear out of the English idiom into that of a foreign tongue is a feat compassed by any intelligent schoolboy. But the pages of more than one modern novelist bear witness that when it comes to distinctions of colloquial usage in London and New York the game is not so easy to play. It would be less American than the English. Mrs. Humphry Ward, on the other hand, displays now and again in "Eleanor" a lack of sensitiveness to international differences of speech that is curious in a keen observer. The sub-heroine of the tale is a raw girl from Vermont, without the palest tinge of cosmopolitanism, but the language she speaks was never heard in Vermont. It is not the custom in that or in any other State of the Union to "tie down the jam," or to speak of one's dress as "my poor frock," or to say "I am perfectly right," or "Uncle Ben gave it me." Here and there Mrs. Ward makes the usual conscientious literary effort, after locally testing the resources of the psychological grammarian, to decide why an Englishman can and usually does say "He gave it me" while his American cousin cannot, but says invariably "to me."

Mr. Henry James, though he is by no means infallible, is sufficiently expatriated to avoid putting too subtle Americanisms into the mouths of his Englishmen, who by dint of his elaborate caution in this respect are often coloured by throwing in an "I guess" or a "just," when we are to be reminded that Lucy speaks Vermontese. The result is more amusing than convincing in such a sentence as "I guess they *will* have sent it *you*," where the first two words are the only ones that could have proceeded in precisely that order from the well of

American undefiled. These are slight slips but they are worth pointing out if we have a right to expect that a writer who handles international episodes shall give us not only subtle dialogue but correct dialect.

Yours truly,
W. CAVE FRANCE.

"THE ALBATROSS."

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

12 Ratislaw Terrace, Aberdeen,
14 January, 1901.

SIR,—Allow me in a word to thank you for the noble stand you are making in this matter of the brutal torture and approaching extinction of the albatross.

It is a thousand to one that I shall never see the great bird myself, nevertheless my blood boils at reading of such deeds done by Britons.

The captain of a ship is all powerful on board and could put his foot down and say that neither passengers nor crew should do this devilish work.

I have been reading a list of wild creatures exterminated and extinct during last century. Is the noble albatross to be added to the list? If only schools would teach children the enjoyment to be derived from watching the wild life of earth and air, we might have hope.

It is not often I agree with Mr. Cunninghame Graham, but he deserves our hearty thanks in this matter.

I am, yours, &c.
W. C. GOOD.

ALFRED STEVENS.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Guildford.

SIR,—The portrait of Mr. Morris Moore—so justly and eloquently eulogised by your contributor D. S. M., was painted by Stevens in Rome about the year 1843. It created an impression there, and I heard it highly spoken of by resident artists when I was studying painting in the Eternal City in 1851. Stevens told me that he had painted other portraits whilst in Italy but he did not particularise them, and I fear that after this lapse of time it would be difficult, or impossible, to trace them. I became acquainted with Stevens in London in 1852 and remained on friendly and indeed familiar terms with him till his untimely death. In the dining-room of his residence at Haverstock Hill were, in addition to the Peter Martyr, excellent copies by him of Titian's grand pictures, the Assumption of the Virgin, and the Presentation of the Virgin at the Temple. On my praising the texture of the latter he told me what vehicle, a somewhat unusual one, he had used in producing it. There were also some small copies of Titian portraits in the gallery at Florence. A fine table in the dining-room had been made from his design, and various carved decorative panels about the house had been executed from his drawings. In fact all his works were admirable.—Yours obediently,

THOMAS WHITBURN.

LEADLESS GLAZE.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Women's Trade Union League, Club Union Buildings,
Clerkenwell Road, E.C., 16 January, 1901.

SIR,—Will you permit me to reply to your criticisms on my advice to the public as to the purchase of ware marked "Leadless Glaze"? I can imagine, as you suggest, that a certain class of employer might, if it paid them to do so, falsely label their ware. The "little potter" class of manufacturer to which you allude does not however appear to me to be the class which is engaged in manufacturing leadless-glazed ware.

The "manufacturers who are in the forefront of the experiments," the "good firms" I mentioned, have a very large reputation to support and the "right-minded man" had better trust to the fact that it is the best firms mainly, with most at stake, who are putting, in the first instance, ware stamped "leadless" on the market.

The "little potter" of your paragraph will no doubt follow suit by and by when a large demand has popularised the non-dangerous pottery, but as leadless-glazed ware is cheaper to make there is no fear of his putting himself to an unnecessary expense.

If the standing of such firms as the Royal Worcester Works is not to be taken as a guarantee that they would prefer not to bring themselves under the Merchandise Marks Act by putting a false description on their goods, there are other safeguards. The Government Chemist is constantly applying tests to "leadless glazes," and other means, such as that of the refractometer suggested by Mr. Beale in a letter to the papers, are being brought forward.

I have every sympathy with the "right-minded man" and it was for his sake that I replied to the suggestion by implication which has been made—which is as insidious as it is untrue—that leadless-glazed ware cannot be made and that none so stamped can be trusted, and that therefore it is immaterial whether it be demanded or no.—I am, Sir, yours, &c.

GERTRUDE M. TUCKWELL, Hon. Sec.

[This is a more satisfactory answer than that in the "Times" letter to the objection as to public assurance that ware stamped "leadless" really is such; for it suggests the possibility of tests. If a satisfactory test exists, it can, if the Government will, be put within the purchaser's reach. But the difficulty as to foreign-made ware remains. No one supposes that one purchaser in a hundred will himself attempt to apply the test or get it applied, but the knowledge that someone may, and almost certainly someone will do so, will be enough to make it not worth a manufacturer's while to run the risk of exposure. But the same will not apply to foreign firms. If unlimited importation be allowed, it will pay foreign firms to take the risk; they cannot be punished. The difficulty, however, could be met by a very heavy import duty.]

Of course, if it turns out, as we sincerely hope it may, that all wares and any colour can equally well be produced, and more cheaply, without lead as with it, the difficulty will resolve itself.—ED. S. R.]

THE ANGLO-AMERICAN ENTENTE.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

7 Sloane Street, S.W., 15 Jan., 1901.

SIR,—May I acknowledge the receipt of Colonel Curtin's letter (below) in your columns? It is most elegantly worded; but what after all is style compared to the truthful outpourings of the heart?

If it is a genuine letter, and I see no reason to doubt the fact, pages of mine could not so well prove that which I have so often contended in your columns, viz. that the bitterest enemy of Great Britain is the United States.—Yours faithfully,

R. B. CUNNINGHAME GRAHAM.

Delaware, Ohio, U.S.A.

DEAR MR. GRAHAM,—You seem surprised that England should abjectly submit to the behests of the United States. A whipped cur dreads the lash, you know, and nothing would be so popular in the United States as a chance to hand England her dues for the third time, viz., 1776, 1812, and 1901. In our Spanish war we received no aid, moral or material, from England. We needed none. And had we, we had Russia, our ever-faithful friend, which in 1862 placed her navy at our disposal to prey on your merchant ships; and in the Venezuelan matter offered a hundred million in gold to the United States free of interest.

Salisbury is not much of a statesman, but he does not care to have England reduced to Spain's condition, with India belonging to Russia and Egypt to France, while South Africa would naturally drop to Germany. That's why England could not be kicked into a war with the United States.

When 300,000 English soldiers cannot control 5,000 Dutch farmers, it is a poor time for even such ignorant persons as yourself to air your ignorance.

R. C. CURTON, Colonel U.S. Army.

REVIEWS.

A LITERARY HISTORY OF AMERICA.

"A Literary History of America." By Barrett Wendell. London: Unwin. 1900. 16s.

MR. WENDELL explains part of his intention, in this elaborate history of American literature, when he says in his introduction: "An important phase of our study must accordingly be that which attempts to trace and to understand the changes in the native character of the Americans and of the English, which so long resulted in disunion of national sentiment." Throughout his book, he never forgets what was being done in England, though his main concern is with what was being done in America. His definitions of what he considers to be characteristically American may not always, to Englishmen, seem quite exact; they are always interesting. For instance, in his chapter on Poe, he says: "There is something characteristically American, too, in the fact that Poe's work gains its effect from artistic conscience, an ever-present sense of form." Now it is usually supposed that it was precisely in his form that Poe was least characteristically American; that it was precisely his artistic conscience which distinguished him from all his contemporaries, with the exception of Hawthorne. Mr. Wendell instances both Bryant and Washington Irving as writers of scrupulous artistic merit. In an astonishing paragraph he refers to Byron, Hazlitt, Leigh Hunt, Scott, Shelley, and Wordsworth, as exact contemporaries of Irving, and, mentioning a characteristic work of each, adds: "There can be little doubt that in formal style the 'Sketch Book' is more conscientious than any of these." He seems to forget that such form as Irving's, compared with the form, more tumultuous if you like, of these English writers, is like a dead thing beside a living thing. Such elegance of line as it may have comes from the fact that it cannot move, that it has nothing to say, that there is no life in it. The form of Bryant he defines, in a sentence meant to be at all events partially flattering, as made up of "fastidious over-refinement, tender sentimentality, and pervasive luminosity." Need more be said, to express, from quite another point of view, the impoverished carefulness of Bryant? But to return to Poe, who may always be taken as a touchstone of the critical intelligence of American critics, we read of "the work of Poe, itself for all its merit not deeply significant," and we begin to wonder what Mr. Wendell finds significant in literature. "In his lifetime, then, we learn, 'Poe must have seemed personally inferior to most of his eminent contemporaries in American letters.' By 'personally,' we gather, is meant 'socially.' 'Fifty years after his death, then, we find his reputation familiar throughout the civilised world; and such a reputation obscures the fact that in life the man who has won it was of doubtful repute.' Then comes a comparison with Marlowe, and this conclusion: "each was only one of a considerable group of writers, now mostly forgotten but undeniably more presentable than the artists whom time has proved greater." "More presentable"! The word seems to indicate so superlative a provinciality of mind that we hasten to add that this is not to be taken as altogether characteristic of Mr. Wendell's opinions. Mr. Wendell is at his best when dealing with writers like Emerson, in whom the moral conscience was stronger than the artistic conscience. When both are found equally united, as in Hawthorne, he is thoroughly just to both, but if the two are found divided, he seems able only to appreciate the one. He enormously overrates Whittier, an inferior poet, whom indignation occasionally roused to a fiery rhetoric certainly admirable of its kind; and he overrates him because he does not realise how trivial is the kind of charm which is all that Whittier can give us when he writes peacefully. Because Poe was fantastically inhuman, a conscious artist doing strange things with strange materials, he does not realise how fine, how rare, is the beauty which this artist brings into the world. It is quite true that, as he says, there was something meretricious in Poe: it is the flaw in his genius; but then he had genius, and Whittier, Bryant, Irving, Longfellow, Lowell, and the rest had only varying degrees

of talent. Admit, by all means, that a diamond is flawed; but do not insist on comparing it with this and that fine specimen of rock-crystal.

Something of the same confusion of values comes into various of these pages. Oliver Wendell Holmes, for instance, is a most agreeable writer, a writer of great talent; but what are we to say of a serious comparison of Holmes and Voltaire? "If there be any one European figure whose position in world literature is analogous to that of Holmes in the literature of New England, it is Voltaire. . . . In the contrast between them, then, there is something which freshly throws familiar light on New England. The contrast between Holmes and Voltaire,—if in one sense a contrast between the eighteenth century and the nineteenth, is in another sense a contrast between a foul old Europe and an America still pure in its national inexperience." Now the contrast, apart from the question of intellectual power, is simply this: that Holmes is always superficial and Voltaire not always. The "purity of inexperience" is hardly more than a synonym for the ignorance of inexperience. If it is not ignorance it is a shirking of the truth, and it is difficult to say which is more pernicious in literature.

Where moral and artistic ideas do not come into conflict, Mr. Wendell is, as a rule, very just and reasonable. He writes excellently of Longfellow and of Lowell, of the Transcendental movement and of the novelists of adventure; though indeed, like almost all critics, he does no sort of justice to Hermann Melville, whom he dismisses in the fraction of a sentence. His account of the "Biglow Papers," and his analysis of the contradictory elements, the humanity and the pedantry, the freakishness and the artistic feeling, of Lowell's temperament, are quite admirable; and such passages as that in which the fresh young interest of the Boston of 1830 in "excellent modern literature and excellent modern music" is compared with the interest of the fifteenth-century Italians in the newly discovered Greek manuscripts, are full of insight and instruction. The book as a whole may be commended for its method and earnestness, and for its pleasant way of carrying one along from page to page. It is not always written in quite classical English: "no end of things," "breadthens," as a verb, "his father . . . had gone wrong, and brought up on the stage," do not strike us as being very careful or very correct in expression. But it is written in an easy and urbane way, if without brilliance, yet without affectation; and it gives a more plausible account of the whole course of American literature than any literary historian has yet given.

THE END OF THE MIDDLE AGES.

"Pictures of the Old French Court." By Catherine Bearne. London: Unwin. 1900. 10s. 6d.

FOR some reason or other there are portions of European history which have been put out of the general groove, which are treated as a rule specially and therefore falsely, so that if the reader who knows them best in their detail should be introduced to the preceding period he would say "I have been told something false, for the thing I have read of could not have grown from such origins as these." Of that kind of period the principal perhaps is the sixth and the first half of the seventh centuries, where the contrast between what Rome had been and what barbarism was beginning to be, the story of church councils and blind fighting, wearies the classicism and rationalism of our time. No one can read the common view of the Merovingians and square it with what we know of the fall of the Empire. One of the two is false and we know it is not the last. How many people would write of "Hlodowig" if they had read Fortunatus? And who can read of a Benedictine Council and then grope in Anglo-Saxon documents for the origins of the representative system?

But while this is without question the most mis-read of all periods in our history, and the one whose mis-reading has been most fruitful in distorting political history and its lessons, there is another of less effect which—save that its facts are more thoroughly known—has suffered almost as much at the hands of secondary

historians and modern fallacies. The decline of the middle ages, the unique example in history of how a civilisation can die of itself without pressure from without, is almost invariably presented falsely. And the proof that it is so presented may be discovered in the fact that historians continue to take the Renaissance as an isolated movement, a kind of creation, and that no one yet has written of the great religious upheaval of the sixteenth century in the light of the religious terror of the fifteenth. Yet what better introduction to Leonardo could you have than to steep yourself in the increasing detail, accuracy and realism of the illuminators, as you followed them in order through the last hundred years of their peculiar art, or what better explanation of the Reformation than an acquaintance with the panicky despotism of the Lancastrians and later of Louis in their treatment of the crop of heresies?

The decline of the Middle Ages has then this supreme lesson attached to it, that a civilisation can die of itself. The blood had run out of the veins of Europe or dried up in them, and the things in which we seek the causes of this—the hundred years' war, the appanages in France, the coalescence of the great estates in England, the ruin and particularisation of the Empire, the effrontery and decay of the religious orders—all these were rather effects of the general spirit of the time. It will indeed be admitted that the Black Death marked the origins of the change, and of all the material accidents of the fourteenth century it alone, perhaps, can be granted the dignity of an historical cause. But even the plague was a disease galling a body prematurely old; if there came no succeeding vigour to restore the life and polity of the Western peoples it was because the inner thing, the springs of the mind, had failed.

All that running down of what had been in the thirteenth century so complete a social machinery is centred in the Hôtel S. Paul. That old palace in the heart of a Gothic and ruinous capital has the peculiar atmosphere of those buildings to which one historical purpose and one alone attaches. The French kingship, the lilies that were the chief symbol of the pure mediæval ideal put it up like a kind of shrine in which to die. It is with the end of the happy fighters, after the death of John the Loyal and with the first years of Charles V.'s sad wisdom, that the fantastic roofs are raised; under those gables and spires and in those tapestried and panelled rooms that the long madness of Charles VI. and the ageing wickedness of Isabella ran like a thread of poison; into the hall that Henry of England came with his pale, fanatical eyes and his "words like razors," to build up his alliance and to imagine his vain dream of a Western empire. Then, with the first dawn of a new time, you have the Hôtel S. Paul suddenly abandoned. The first printed book of Paris was taken in solemnity to the king at the Tournelles, the manuscripts of Constantinople rejoiced no scholar in the library of the old place, the Louvre perhaps alone of the palaces of the north bank received the new learning. With dramatic fitness it was the first of the Medicis that destroyed these abandoned walls.

In that framework you see passing a pageantry of faces whose character, varied between the experience of Charles V., the lunacy of his son, the hard egoism of the Dauphin and the mad cunning of Louis XI., has yet always something in common marking the race. The long Valois face, the thin lips and slow eyes are an inheritance to the house, and it is marvellous to note how the four kings seem to sum up the character of the time and to symbolise their people. That earliest Dance of Death, which the genius of the Paris streets sketched out in the popular cemetery of the Innocents, corresponds to the wild tragedy of the dismembered country, the empty throne and the Bavarian woman lying abandoned in her dusty rooms over the Rue S. Antoine. The confused frenzy of the populace for Burgundy at any cost is but a foil to—it is also an explanation of—the Dauphin's Court in which no definite national policy can be formulated, and which only something partisan can stir to activity.

It is probable that, in the near future, the historians will follow the example of the artists and return to a time which has about it the fascination of terror. The æsthetic reaction of our generation has pushed back to

the later fourteenth and the fifteenth centuries with eagerness, seeking even in the midst of so much corruption the beauty that clings to every ending as to a sunset. There is a famous couplet in Shelley that illustrates this human tendency to admire the pageantry of dissolution. It runs—

"... That high capitol where kingly Death
Keeps his pale court of beauty and decay."

And the emotion that prompted such lines will push curiosity into the death chambers of the Middle Ages. We shall have the Lancastrians, Warwick, Burgundy, the vast cavalry charges, the lunatic "revivals," the enthusiasts, set out as they were, and covered with that veil of iridescent colour which is the mark of the last hours of the old world. No one could dare undertake such work did he not know that this despair broke into the fine broad daylight of the sixteenth century. But knowing this, and daring to explore the old palace and its lives, as we would explore a grave, whoever writes us the story will give us a foundation on which to build the Reformation, and a key by which to read the riddle of the Renaissance. It has yet to be attempted.

NEW FIELDS FOR AN OLD HUNTER.

"Sport and Travel East and West." By Frederick Courteney Selous. London: Longmans. 1900.

AFTER a quarter of a century passed among the splendid hunting grounds of Southern Africa, Mr. Selous has betaken himself to an alien veldt, and in this volume records some of his new wanderings in search of sport and nature. For, it is not to be forgotten, Mr. Selous in spite of his wonderful collection of trophies is as much a lover of nature as a natural-born hunter and pioneer. He went out to Africa as a youngster as much bitten with the idea of living the wild life as of shooting game, and in middle age, as is plainly apparent from a study of this book, his early enthusiasms have not yet forsaken him. In his salad days Mr. Selous hunted elephants and their ivory as a means of livelihood, but as regards other game he has set an excellent example to all European hunters. He has killed lions—many of them—probably for two reasons; the instinct of destroying a dangerous beast of prey and the natural desire of an adventurous spirit to conquer one of the most formidable of wild creatures. But, among the innumerable species of antelopes and other game, which he has encountered during an almost unexampled career in South Africa, the great hunter has never shot wastefully, never slaying more than sufficient to feed himself and his followers, to secure special trophies and specimens necessary for museums. It is quite certain that in his recent expeditions to Asia Minor and North America, of which this volume treats, Mr. Selous might have shot a good many head of game if he had been a butcher pure and simple. Instead of this he has, like the good sportsman he is, contented himself with a few desirable heads, and let the majority of the beasts seen by him go unscathed. It is a pity that so few gunners in America possess this moderation. As it is, in the Western States at all events, game laws are a farce, and wapiti, mule deer, and white-tailed deer will soon be little else than a legend of the past.

In the first instance Mr. Selous travelled in search of wild goats to Asia Minor, where on the Musa Dagh and the Maimun Dagh he had plenty of hard and thirsty climbing and secured a head or two of the game he needed. The horns of the ibex (*Capra ægagrus*) of which he was in quest are excellent trophies and no beast in the world affords finer or more difficult stalking. On a third expedition, made in 1897, Mr. Selous went from Smyrna to various ranges in search of the great Asiatic red deer (*Cervus maral*) and of the eggs of various eagles, vultures, and other birds. In his youth he was an ardent collector of eggs and the passion seems to have returned to him in middle life.

The home of the splendid wild stag of Western Asia,—the maral, sometimes called the Caspian red deer—seems to lie among well-watered mountain

ranges, thickly covered with pine, juniper, and in some parts beech and oak trees. In fair condition a good maral stag will weigh forty stone clean—about double the weight of a Scottish red deer. A good head will measure 48½ inches along the beam and carry 21 points, a magnificent trophy assuredly, which any hunter might be forgiven for coveting. These grand beasts are not over-plentiful even in a wild country like Asia Minor, and Mr. Selous, hunting vigorously on the Ak Dagħ (White Mountain) during a month in the autumn of 1894, only secured one of them, a fifteen-pointer. "But," as he remarks, "the sportsman who wants to kill a lot of beasts had better go to some other part of the world than Asia Minor." In spite of a great deal of bad and snowy weather—winter had not yet vanished—he killed a good stag in the early part of 1897 and secured the eggs of various notable raptorial birds. "It will be long," says the author, "before the vision of the snow-covered mountains, grand and beautiful, alike both in sunshine and storm, fades from my memory; and in my dreams, I often still pursue the great grey stags in those wild solitudes."

In the autumn of this same year (1897) Mr. Selous made his first sporting trip to the States. "The America I desired to visit," he says, "was the America of my boyish dreams, the land of vast rolling plains, over which the shaggy bisons—now alas! extinct—once ranged in such countless multitudes, and of rugged mountain ranges where the wapiti, once so plentiful, still roams warily, never now showing his magnificently antlered head beyond the shadow of the dark pine forests, if he can possibly avoid doing so." His hunting ground lay in Wyoming, where, among the mountains and forests, in spite of the terrible decimation of a score of years, he managed to secure some fine examples of deer life. Wapiti—invariably miscalled elk in North America—those most magnificent of the red deer family—must with mule deer have been a few years since extraordinarily abundant towards the Bighorn Basin, as well as in many other parts of the States. The horns of these animals lay scattered everywhere over the face of the country. "They had all been shed years ago during the annual migrations, when the great bands of wapiti were returning in the spring from their feeding grounds in the Bighorn Basin to the mountain forests where they lived." In spite of the present comparative dearth of game in these regions Mr. Selous in two seasons shot specimens of prong-horn antelope, wapiti, mule deer, white-tailed deer, lynx, and other game. The extraordinary wapiti heads of bygone years are not now to be obtained, but the author succeeded in bagging some fair examples. The biggest stag shot was a twelve-pointer, and weighed, *clean*, after the rutting season, when of course out of condition, 51 stone 11 lbs. In good condition Mr. Selous estimates his weight at sixty stone clean—a magnificent sample of the great American red deer truly!

There are many charming pictures of sport and nature in this delightful book. The description of the November hunt, ending in the death of the white-tailed deer, pp. 251–256, could scarcely be bettered. But in truth the whole volume is full of interest. Mr. Selous has many shrewd notes on men and things. At pp. 159–160 he notices the splendid energy of the Mormon settlers in irrigating their homesteads, miles distant from the river. "If Mr. Rhodes," he says, "could only manage to transplant a few hundred of these hard-working Mormon families to the high plateaus of Matabeleland and Mashonaland, what a transformation they would work in those countries in a few short years! provided always they did not succumb to the influences of their new environment." Mr. Selous lays his finger here upon the curse of the white man's slackness and apathy in a black man's country, even although that country is naturally well fitted for white labour. This book is well illustrated but we regret the omission of chapter headings, maps and an index.

LES SECRETS DE L'ÉPÉE.

"Secrets of the Sword." Translated from the original French of Baron de Bazancourt by C. F. Clay. With Illustrations by F. H. Townsend. London: Bell. 1900. 7s. 6d.

THE Baron de Bazancourt's book "*Les Secrets de l'Épée*" is one of the most interesting contributions made in modern times to the literature of the white arm. Nowadays when the beautiful and useful art of fencing and sword-play is beginning, has well begun one might even say, to attract the attention which not very long ago it vainly asked for in England, it certainly seems high time for an English translation of so remarkable a work. The occasion then has come and found a writer ready for it. To what extent he has shown himself, as Shagpat had it, "master of an event" shall be presently discussed. The Baron de Bazancourt's book was published by Amyot 8 Rue de la Paix Paris in 1862 and reproduced by the same firm in 1876. The Baron, who died in 1865, was well known in Paris society and also well known to a wider public by works on the campaigns in the Crimea, Italy, Mexico, and Cochin China. His book on the secrets of the sword was and is noteworthy in many ways. If paradoxically inclined one might say that "*Les Secrets de l'Épée*" was written to prove that there are no such secrets, which, of course, so far as regards all once vaunted "secret thrusts" is but a platitude. The Baron's aim however was, as he himself said plainly enough, to tear away certain superfluous trappings of pedantic nomenclature along with what he regarded as a kind of official red-tapeism on the part of too many of the professors of his day. In the record of one of the charming evenings of conversation in which he expounded his views to a listening circle he laid it down that there was no more difficulty about learning to fence or handle a duelling-sword as a man of the world should do than there was about learning to ride as a man of the world should ride. He admitted fully, and the admission has been too much passed over, carelessly or not, by some of his critics, that to attain to the very first rank as a fencer and swordsman demanded unremitting study and practice allied to a natural disposition for the science—as much study and practice indeed as go to make a professor's reputation. On the other hand he contended that many a promising pupil was put off from pursuing his studies not only by needless convolution and even confusion in technical phrases, but also by being kept far too long at the work of repeating attacks and defences, thrusts and parries, at the master's orders without ever being allowed to try his skill and, so to speak, feel his feet in loose play. There is some truth in this now and there must have been a good deal of truth in it when the Baron wrote in 1862. The best masters even now are apt to keep a pupil, who has long ago stepped into the arena of loose play, so long at a lesson, unless he himself can find a polite excuse for cutting it short, that, when after the lesson, he encounters an adversary, his mind and body are both in a condition short of the fresh vigour to be desired whether he does or does not meet a foeman worthy or more than worthy of his steel.

Monsieur de Bazancourt put forward his ideas with complete clearness, grace, and moderation, and they assuredly have some basis of common sense and reason though, as a distinguished English authority has said, he to some extent, albeit a first-rate swordsman himself, "represents [in his book] in the most brilliant manner the malcontents whose very name stirs to fury a righteous maître d'armes." But to go deeper than we have done into the merits and demerits of the Baron de Bazancourt's heresy, as it is still considered by a considerable number of professors and amateurs, would lead one into a small monograph. Let us rather consider how far Mr. Clay in "*Secrets of the Sword*" (surely it should be *the secrets*) has done justice to his original. As to this there are two faults, the one hanging on to the other, to be found with his performance. But we may at once say that Mr. Clay possesses one very necessary qualification—he certainly seems to know French and English, and as to French his correctness in writing *Bazancourt* without the *de* when he mentions the French author without his title might be

taken as evidence that his is no mere book knowledge. On the other hand this very fact makes his mistake or mistakes the more annoying. His work is labelled as "translated from the original French." It is not translated as the word is rightly understood. It should have been called a free translation with additions, or a version. No one wishes to bind a translator down to literal accuracy, or in other phrase to translation word by word. "The sense, the mighty sense" is no doubt the important matter, but there are limits to license in free rendering. For our own part we have a very strong objection to spoiling Monsieur de Bazancourt's excellent style by slangy and what are called "up-to-date" expressions, and an equally strong objection to any tampering with the text of a book which is in its way a classic. The statement that Mr. Clay has committed both of these faults must be justified by instances, and here follow some out of many which might be adduced. The paging of the French edition of 1876 is adopted.

Page 5 in the French of the "Introduction" as the English version properly calls it. "Parbleu! repris-je aussitôt, je sais la réponse habituelle en pareil cas. 'Cela ne nous empêcherait pas de nous battre avec autant de courage qu'aucun autre.'"

This supposed reply is rendered on page 7 in the English version. "True, you will say 'we may be duffers, but we are not afraid of fighting.'"

What kind of "translation" is this? And what can have possessed the writer to put *duffers* into a sentence supposed to be uttered by the invariably "correct" Bazancourt? Again on pp. 26-27 in the French we find

"Tenez, voulez-vous que je vous réduise la pensée de chacun à sa véritable expression: 'Etre dangereux sur le terrain, savoir honorablement défendre sa vie—voilà ce que le plus grand nombre demande à l'étude des armes.'"

In the English (p. 25) we have this "I believe that what most men think about it can be put in a very few words—'We don't want to fight but—if we must, we should like to be able to show our teeth and fight like gentlemen [an unlucky collocation surely]' that is all the average man wants with fencing."

Again what kind of translation is this, and again what conceivable excuse is there for dragging in the refrain of a long worn-out English music-hall song?

One more example shall suffice.

On p. 38 in the French are these words: "ils feraient au hasard, rampant ou avançant sans ordre ni mesure." English p. 35 "they let fly at random, and advance or retire without any notion of time or distance," while a little lower down "leur imprévoyance" becomes "their slap-dash play." There is no need to carry it further. Mr. Clay can claim to have rendered a service to some English readers by presenting accurately the gist of the opinions held by Monsieur de Bazancourt; but without any kind of doubt he has erred in seeking in the process of "translation" to embellish and modernise a singularly charming and instructive book.

NOVELS.

"The Brass Bottle." By F. Anstey. London: Smith, Elder. 1900. 6s.

One of the chief delights of the happy dreamers in Du Maurier's "Peter Ibbetson" was to transport to London the features of life in more romantic places; to glide along Piccadilly in a gondola, and return to Kensington by way of the Taj Mahal. Mr. Anstey possesses this same talent. The people of whom he writes are those whom we see every day, but he delights to introduce into their dull existence a magic stone, a revived goddess, or, as in this case, a Jinnee from the "Arabian Nights," and to watch paternally the absurd consequences. It is a very pretty talent, and anyone with a scrap of imagination will swallow even the procession of supernatural camels that parades Westminster at the Jinnee's bidding, and welcome one of the most amusing books that have appeared for many days. The orthodox Jinnee, let out of a brass bottle or any other place wherein Jinns are commonly

found, spends his fury, as we all know, on his rescuer. Mr. Anstey's Fakrash-el-Amaash has mellowed in captivity, and it is his indefatigable and tactless benevolence that reduces Horace Ventimore, the amiable and unsuccessful young architect, to ruin and despair. Somewhat clumsily Mr. Anstey rights matters, but it were churlish to complain that a delightful farce ends weakly. If the farce be good, who will care to criticise the last five minutes before the curtain falls?

"The Baron's Sons." By Maurus Jókai. Translated from the Hungarian by Percy Favor Bicknell. London: Macqueen. 1900. 6s.

"The Day of Wrath." By Maurus Jókai. Translated from the Hungarian by R. Nisbet Bain. London: Jarrold. 1900. 6s.

It is a trite saying that translations are seldom if ever satisfactory. But "The Baron's Sons" ("A Kőszívű Ember Fiai") as presented by Mr. Bicknell, an American writer, is certainly a moving volume. It may lack much from the Magyar standpoint. It is an abridgment of and in some respects an adaptation from the original. Still there is that in it which quickens the pulse, stirs the fancy, and appeals to the finer emotions. The romantic element of Dr. Jókai's story is not destroyed whatever may be lacking in intensity of feeling or elaboration of detail. The book conveys a political as well as a moral lesson in its treatment of the Hungarian rising of 1848. This brilliant study of the Baroness Baradlay and her three sons, like the old story of the Gracchi, has a strong human interest apart from its political or historical aspects. "The Day of Wrath" was written shortly after the collapse of the Revolution and the author's proscription. It is fine romance wedded to serious purpose. It brings one face to face with the inflammable qualities of popular ignorance and emphasises the responsibility that rests with the ruling classes. With the romance there is humour of a high order. Peculiarly applicable as they are to the veteran novelist's countrymen the lessons this story teaches can never be pondered too carefully by anyone who is concerned directly or as a student with the world-problems of popular government and the psychology of the mob.

"Parson Peter." By Arthur H. Norway. London: Murray. 1900. 6s.

This is a strange story about smuggling in Devonshire over a hundred years ago, when every man woman and child on the coast was either a smuggler or in open sympathy with smuggling. The eponymous hero, like everybody else, had excellent reasons to prove that there was really nothing immoral about smuggling. But, when putting his theories into practice, he found it difficult to reconcile his position as a parish priest with the support of lawless men in their conflict with authority. The workings of his mind during the various consequent dilemmas are excellently portrayed and we obtain a very dramatic impression of life and manners on the Devonshire coast in those stirring times. In the hands of an incompetent writer, this book might easily have become both tedious and offensive, but Mr. Norway writes with so much distinction and with such a humorous appreciation of the characteristics of West countrymen that it is impossible to read him without continuous pleasure. His sense of poetry triumphs over even the most sordid situations.

"In the Palace of the King: a Love Story of Old Madrid." By Francis Marion Crawford. London: Macmillan. 1900. 6s.

This is an episode of Court intrigue under Philip II., picturesquely told, yet artificial but for the grim portrayal of the King's nature. The action of the story turns mainly upon the discovery of Don John of Austria lying apparently dead in his room, and the author weakens his position by reminding readers that three years later Don John won the battle of Lepanto. It is as when a hero of fiction writes with his own hand the story of his encompassment by inevitable death. The heroine—a very charming heroine—somehow suggests rather the right kind of modern American girl than the sixteenth-century Spaniard, and Don John

himself is a fairy prince. We hope that the book will recall to American readers the glories of that empire on whose ashes they have wantonly trampled. To English readers it will furnish a temporary escape from the cads and bores of current fiction.

NEW BOOKS AND REPRINTS.

"The Inhabitants of the Philippines." By F. H. Sawyer. London: Sampson Low. 1900.

Mr. Sawyer has written a most useful and timely book. He is well qualified to treat of the subject, for he resided in the Philippines from 1877 to 1892, and in the course of those years visited all parts of the archipelago, and made himself acquainted with all classes of the inhabitants, civilised, semi-civilised, and savage. The result of his experience is to drive both the author and his readers to the conclusion that, with the exercise of the most ordinary common sense and tact, not to say humanity, an American protectorate might have been established over the islands without friction. As it is millions of dollars and thousands of lives have been expended on both sides to no purpose, and a long and dreary vista of similar misfortunes opens before both Americans and Filipinos. Mr. Sawyer's book is a mine of information; but the ore which is there lies rough and uncrushed, and in a somewhat uncouth state; but we must thank him for bringing it within our reach. The picture he draws of the old patriarchal rule of Spain is by

(Continued on page 86.)

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no means unpleasant. It was the attempt of certain Madrid bureaucrats to assimilate the colonial with the home administration which led to all the trouble. Many of the governors themselves were *grandeës* worthy of the highest traditions of their houses; but their underlings were often scoundrels of the worst description. The latter years of Spanish rule reduced the islands to a hell on earth; but Mr. Sawyer's criticisms of American methods, already quoted in the SATURDAY REVIEW, do not indicate much improvement under the present régime. That the islands are capable of immense development under an impartial and sympathetic administration is quite evident; but some very different methods from those at present in use will have to be employed if American rule is to prove anything but a curse. The Filipinos are to be congratulated on having at last secured an advocate so well informed and fair minded as Mr. Sawyer, though he might have advanced his cause still further by a stronger sense of style and arrangement.

"Celebrities of the Army." Edited by Commander Robinson, R.N. London: Newnes. 1900. 15s.

The gross inaccuracies in the colouring of medal ribbons, and in some cases even of uniforms, detract largely from the value of this publication. The military Victoria Cross is crimson. Yet in almost all cases it has been coloured blue like the naval one. Such a mistake on the part of a naval editor is comprehensible, if not excusable. But there can be no possible excuse for the wrong colouring of ordinary war medals. These at any rate are alike both for army and navy. Moreover by the expenditure of sixpence a card might have been obtained from Messrs. Gale and Polden giving accurate information on all these points. In almost all cases the Khedive's Star is coloured red, and the Afghan medal red and blue instead of red and green. There is hardly an illustration in this book without a wrongly coloured ribbon or uniform. As regards the biographies, an uninterrupted stream of excessive and indiscriminate praise is apt to be wearisome.

"Lord Roberts as a Soldier in Peace and War: a Biography." By Captain W. E. Cairnes. London: Hodder and Stoughton. 1901. 6s.

Captain Cairnes evidently does not consider a portrait necessary to a biography. In Lord Roberts' case a picture was not essential; but then neither is the biography itself. If a substantial book had to be written about the Commander-in-Chief it were a pity Captain Cairnes did not requisition the assistance of some literary friend. He has so complete a grasp of the military side of his subject that, given some approach to style, his book would have possessed a certain value. When such phrases as "it is not surprising" occur more than once on a single page and recur at intervals of every few pages, "it is not surprising" if we feel like making a frontal attack on the whole book. The date of Lord Roberts' birth is, unless all other authorities are mistaken, given wrongly as 3 September, 1832. It should be 30 September.

"The Clergy Directory." London: J. S. Phillips. 1901.

This book appeared a month earlier than usual to make its issue synchronise with the beginning of the Church's year. It seems thoroughly up to date as we notice an appointment made at the very end of November is duly inserted. So much is included in the 800 pages that the information is necessarily very much condensed, but for hurried reference it has an advantage over its larger contemporaries.

"Britain's Sea Kings and Sea Fights" (Casell. 7s. 6d.) is a substantial volume of 756 pages containing the plums of our naval story which any Jack Horner who does not aspire to be a student may pick out for himself and feel the better, patriotically, for knowing. It begins with King Alfred and ends with the siege of Ladysmith.—"Voyages of the Elizabethan Seamen to America" (Oxford: At the Clarendon Press. 5s.) is the second edition of Mr. E. J. Payne's second series of selections from the "Principal Navigations" of Hakluyt.—"Under England's Flag" (A. and C. Black. 6s.) will be welcomed by all who have read Captain Charles Boothby's "A Prisoner of France." The present volume of memoirs and correspondence covers the period from 1804 to 1809, and is now published for the first time, though it was partly prepared for publication 76 years ago. Boothby belonged to the Royal Engineers, and his experiences on both land and sea illustrate the conditions under which England and France maintained the struggle for supremacy. Off Lisbon Rock on 5 May, 1805, he heard that the Toulon fleet of 21 sail was "out" and that Nelson was after them with ten. "Is he to strive with impossibilities and get the better of them?" he asks. Touches like this are illuminative.

In "The Romance of Spain," Mr. Charles Wood (London: Macmillan. 10s.) has a theme admirably suited to his light and picturesque style of writing. Gazing over the Bay of Biscay from the heights of Sebastian, he says "in these seas and cliffs which never change, and in the wonderful outline of her ancient cities which never weary, far more than in the fleeting charms of the sirens, lies the romance, the true romance of Spain." The castles, the cathedrals and other famous structures are his delight, and he conveys his impressions not unskillfully to the pages of his book.—"Along French By-ways"

(Macmillan. 8s. 6d. net) by Clifton Johnson takes us to the fields and the firesides of the French peasantry of whom it gives a very charming picture. A companion volume to the author's "Among English Hedgerows," it describes the village of Jean-François Millet, the home of Jeanne d'Arc, Lourdes and other places. It is profusely illustrated.—"Life and Sport on the Pacific Slopes" (Hodder and Stoughton. 6s.) by H. A. Vachell covers social and international relationships big-game hunting, fishing and agriculture as seen and practised on the western shores of the United States. The matter is varied, entertaining and informative.

SOME SCHOOL BOOKS.

"A History of Education." By Thomas Davidson. London: Constable. 1900. 5s. net.

This is an attempt to treat ab ovo the Evolution of Education. The opening chapters are devoted to the Rise of the Intelligence, Savage Education, Barbarian Education and the like. We are next plunged into a mass of debatable theories on early education in Ur of the Chaldees, Egypt and China. Thence after passing by easy stages through Judaea, Greece and Rome we arrive at the periods of Hellenistic, Early Christian and Moslem Education. A brief critique on mediæval methods brings us down to modern education which finds its apotheosis in the United States; "it is the highest type thus far of human education." As for Europe and especially England they are very much in the rear, especially England which is still struggling with "sectarianism," while Herbert Spencer and his educational theories are relegated to a footnote. The potentialities of this Yankee education are boundless. Extended and prolonged by means of night schools and popular universities it will do away with "labour troubles, saloon politics, haunts of vice" (including "the pool-room, the dance hall and the dive") (?), "slum life and the like." It will render unnecessary Socialism, paternal legislation, and similar questionable means to secure their (the people's) material comfort. "Give people, first, large comprehensive views of life, and material comforts" (including no doubt the feeding of starving school children) "will take care of themselves." Are higher-grade schools the panacea for strikes? Will the placing of Sidgwick's "Politics" in the code put an end to jobbery and corruption? Surely there are in such problems many factors economic and social which are quite beyond the zone of educational influence, factors that this individualist run mad seems to ignore. Is it not a fact that the coming danger in America, the war between capital and labour, is due in part to this very education?

"First Latin Sentences and Prose." By U. P. Wilson. London: Blackwood. 1900. 2s. 6d.

This book might be called Stepping-stones in Latin Composition, for its aim and object is to lead the beginner by easy stages from detached sentences to continuous prose. A good example of this is afforded by the exercises which follow the explanation of the compound sentence and are meant to test the pupil's understanding of the different types of sentence in English, before their translation into Latin is attempted. This is just the right sort of help the beginner wants, and the teacher too often omits to give him. The subject matter is dealt with first in an elementary fashion, and then again presented in fuller detail. Nor has the author forgotten to "intercalate" recapitulatory exercises at proper intervals. It is certainly a book to be recommended for preparatory schools or the lower classes of a public school.

"Vergil's Georgics." Book I. London: Blackie. 1900. 1s. 6d.

A very handy edition for school use. Introduction and notes are alike clear, and the editor's reflections on Vergil's handling of the hexameter would not be unworthy of a sixth-form boy's consideration. The illustrations are good in the main, and their sources are indicated, as should always be done. There is, however, one absurdity—a fancy picture of some shipwrecked mariners offering libations in thanksgiving for their rescue is referred to line 346, which is concerned with the rural worship of Ceres.

"Livy." Book VI. London: Blackie. 1900. 2s. 6d.

The sources of Livy's history are very clearly explained and summarised in the Introduction, and the remarks on the author's characteristics are suitable. The first illustration, the patera, and that of the temple of Mater Matuta, are excellent reproductions, but the sources from which they are derived are "wropt in mystery," which is not as it should be. One of the best features of the book is the really admirable plan of ancient Rome.

"The Elements of Hydrostatics." By S. L. Loney. Cambridge: at the University Press. 1900.

Mr. Loney now publishes separately an enlargement of his treatment of hydrostatics in the text-book "Mechanics and Hydrostatics." By this time the value of his text-books is well known, and they will rank with the others as an excellent exposition of the subject, treated mathematically, but with only

elementary mathematics required. It is a great relief to find in a work of this kind not only the examples, but the answers, to them in such convenient print.

"Lucian. Charon and Timon." By T. R. Mills. London: W. B. Clive. 1900. 3s. 6d.

One of the numerous crop of ephemeral books that our public examinations call into existence. The only remedy for such a state of things is a drastic abolition of set books. But as long as the evil lasts, publishers are quite within their rights to cater for the fictitious demand that the existing type of public school examinations creates.

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450,000 Ordinary Shares of £1 each 450,000
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TURQUAND, YOUNGS, BISHOP & CLARKE, 41 Coleman Street,
London, E.C.

SECRETARY AND OFFICES (pro tem.).

E. FAIRWEATHER, 3 Princes Street, London, E.C.

The Vendors, Directors, and others have already applied for the whole of the
£250,000 Four per Cent. Debenture Stock; 27,740 out of the 70,000 Preference
Shares, and 318,665 out of the 450,000 Ordinary Shares. Subject to this condition
the whole of the Capital will be offered for Public Subscription at par during
next week.

The Assets to be taken over by the Company, taking nothing into account for
goodwill, Patents and Trade Marks, are to be shown by the Balance Sheet to be
certified by the Auditors as at 31st December, 1900, to exceed the trade liabilities
by at least £1,050,000, which is the amount of the entire debenture and share
capital of the Company.

The Accountants' Certificate shows that the average annual profit during the
last 10 years, after making liberal allowances for depreciation, has amounted to
£89,438.

It is intended to open the subscription lists on or about Wednesday next, the
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Full prospectus can be obtained on or after Monday next from the above-named
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Subscribed Capital £5,000,000
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This Bank grants drafts on, and transacts every description of banking business
with the principal towns in Cape Colony, Natal, Orange River Colony, Transvaal,
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fixed periods. Terms on application.

J. CHUMLEY, London Manager.

NEW EGYPTIAN COMPANY, LIMITED.

REPORT OF THE DIRECTORS,

Submitted at the First Annual General Meeting, held on the 18th day of January, 1901.

The Directors have now the pleasure to submit the First Annual Balance Sheet, for the financial year ending July 31st, 1900, and are glad to be able to report to the Shareholders that the programme which was laid down at the time of the Company's formation is being proceeded with in a satisfactory manner.

Valuable business has been already secured, various promising enterprises have been initiated, and other proposals are now in course of careful investigation by the Directors and Staff of the Company. The excess of expenditure over revenue for the financial year, which is inevitable under the circumstances, may be regarded as fully compensated by the goodwill of the business already taken up.

The London Directors desire to place on record the valuable assistance they have received throughout from their President, H.H. Prince Hussein Kamil, who, from his intimate knowledge of Egypt, has been able to guide them in the direction of the Company's affairs.

The Board wish to express their high appreciation of the work done by Sir John Rogers, the Manager of the Company in Cairo.

The principal business completed during the year under review has been the negotiation and final arrangement made with the Egyptian Government authorities, by which the Company has obtained for a certain period, and under certain conditions, the sole right to reclaim land from the River Nile.

This enterprise was introduced to the Company by Mr. W. Willcocks, the well-known irrigation expert, who has special experience of the Nile, and the operations are under the direction of Mr. Dempster, who has been long engaged in similar work on the Indian rivers.

Mr. Dempster has already made considerable progress with his preliminary inspection on the Nile, and works will very shortly be proceeded with on some of the sites, the selection of which is now the subject of careful study.

From this inspection there appears to be an extensive area available for reclamation, from which substantial profits may be derived by the Company, but in view of the disappointments which occasionally arise in experimental river works of this description, the Board think it safer for the present not to enter into precise figures. Every care has, however, been taken to obtain the best technical advice procurable in order to ensure success.

As the Shareholders were informed at the Statutory Meeting, the Directors decided to give special attention to investment and dealing in land in Egypt, and in order that this business should be dealt with independently, they thought it well to incorporate the Anglo-Egyptian Land Company, which will specially devote itself to this branch of affairs. Of the first nominal issue of capital of this Company half is taken by the new Egyptian Company, and the balance by an influential Egyptian group, whose experience in land questions must prove of great value in connection with this business. The Anglo-Egyptian Land Company has already under option a tract of land, which it proposes to purchase provided suitable terms can be arrived at with the Daira Sanieh Administration. If satisfactory results are obtained in this instance the Land Company may be gradually and largely expanded.

In view of the future opening up of the Soudan, the Directors also decided to incorporate the Soudan Development and Exploration Company, in which, as in the case of the Anglo-Egyptian Land Company, the New Egyptian Company takes one-half of the first nominal issue of capital, the remainder being subscribed by Cairo firms and other influential people. In this direction the Board anticipate later on a

good chance of securing business, especially in the shape of Public Works necessary for the development of this large country. The Soudan Company will probably first occupy itself with the establishment in those regions of the Marconi Wireless Telegraphy, while some commercial business will be undertaken to cover the expenses of the agency which it is intended to establish at Khartoum.

The Board have decided, since the close of the financial year under review, to extend the Company's sphere of action, by availing themselves of the opportunity afforded to them by the New African Company, Limited, to participate in the financing of the Imperial Ethiopian Railway Company. This Abyssinian Railway was incorporated in Paris to acquire and work the grant given by the Emperor Menelik to Messrs. ILG & CHEFNEUX, for the construction of a trunk line of railway between Addis Abeba, the Ethiopian capital, and the Somali Coast of the Red Sea.

Following the arrangements so far made, the railway line has, with the assent of the French Government, already been completed from the Red Sea port of Djibouti across the French Protectorate of Somaliland to the Ethiopian frontier. From thence the line is under construction on Ethiopian territory to a point at the foot of the hills amongst which is situated the commercial centre of Harrar. It is now also desired that a branch line should connect one or other of the harbours in British Somaliland with this trunk line to Harrar and Addis Abeba. The New Egyptian and New African Companies, together with the Oceana Consolidated Company, which has also co-operated, believe that they will be able to harmonise English and French interests in the railway, and hope to achieve the ultimate aim of bringing the heart of Abyssinia, hitherto so inaccessible, within easy reach of European commerce.

Particulars of the Railway concession and of the arrangements with the French Government are hereto annexed for the information of the Shareholders. In Ethiopia itself there is also other business, both territorial and mining, to be carried out, in which this Company, owing to its influence in the Railway, will be able to participate if desired.

Apart from the various undertakings alluded to above, the Directors and officials of your Company have under constant investigation many proposals, mostly in connection with public works in Egypt, regarding some of which references have been made to the Egyptian Government. Many of these are now being studied and will be taken up if the general circumstances permit. It would not, in your Directors' opinion, be in the interests of the Company to refer at present to these affairs in greater detail. The technical work in connection therewith is under the management of Mr. Vaast, late of the Egyptian Railway Department.

In order to facilitate the various businesses in view, your Directors have decided to make a call of 2s. 6d. per share on its issued shares, the proceeds of which call will be sufficient for the immediate requirements of the Company. Notices will be sent out after the General Meeting has been held.

According to the articles the Earl of Chesterfield and His Excellency Boghos Pacha Nubar retire, but being eligible offer themselves for re-election.

Messrs. Cooper Brothers & Co., the Auditors, who also retire, offer themselves for re-election.

By Order of the Board,

R. DORAN HOLTZ,

Secretary.

THE NEW EGYPTIAN COMPANY, Limited.

Dr.		BALANCE SHEET, 31st JULY, 1900.				Cr.	
		£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
To Capital—					By Cash—		
Authorized:					At Bankers and in Hand:		
500,000 Shares of £1 each	£500,000 0 0				London	7,505	11 2
Issued:					Cairo	262	16 4
150,000 Shares of £1 each, of which 5s. per Share					By Short Loans on Stock Exchange Securities ..		7,768 7 6
has been called up	37,500 0 0				By Sundry Debtors	20,391	5 0
The Company has granted options on 150,000						3,724	4 0
Shares at £1 5s. per Share for two years from					By Reclamation Scheme—		31,883 16 6
the 31st July, 1899.					Concession granted by the Egyptian Govern-		
To Sundry Creditors	£9,000 0 0	2,716	9 4		ment for the Reclamation of Land from the		
To Contingent Liability on Underwriting Agreement					River Nile—Expenses in connection there-		1,127 11 6
					with		
					By Office Furniture—		
					London	31	11 4
					Cairo	287	0 8
						319	1 0
					By Preliminary Expenses	1,434	12 6
					By Income and Expenditure Account—		
					From the 31st July, 1899 (the date of the In-		
					corporation of the Company), to the 31st July,		
					1900:—		
					Salaries, Office and other Expenses in		
					London, Paris and Cairo	4,031	3 1
					Directors' Fees	1,500	0 0
						5,531	3 1
					Less:		
					Interest received on Stock Exchange Loans		
					and Deposit Account	1,079	15 3
						4,451	7 10
						£39,216	9 4
						£39,216	9 4

C. B. EUAN-SMITH, } Directors.
G. FITZGERALD, }
R. DORAN HOLTZ, Secretary.

In accordance with the provisions of the Companies Act, 1900, we certify that all our requirements as Auditors have been complied with, and we report to the Shareholders that we have examined the Balance Sheet and Statement of Income and Expenditure with the Books and Accounts relating thereto in London, and the Accounts received from Egypt, and, in our opinion, such Balance Sheet is properly drawn up so as to exhibit a true and correct view of the state of the Company's affairs as shown by the Books of the Company.

London,
10th January, 1901.

COOPER BROS. & CO. } Auditors.
Chartered Accountants, }

FOUR PER CENT. EGYPTIAN GOVERNMENT IRRIGATION TRUST CERTIFICATES.

Secured by deposit of Government Pay Warrants (Mandats de Paiement), which are a direct and unconditional obligation of the Egyptian Government and a charge (affectation) on the Irrigation Works at Assouan and Assiout on the Nile.

ISSUE OF 5,000 CERTIFICATES OF £100 EACH TO BEAR 4 PER CENT. £500,000

Further part of a total issue of like Certificates for £2,714,700, all ranking *pari passu*, bearing interest at 4 per cent. and redeemable by means of an accumulative sinking fund within 30 years commencing in 1903, to be secured by a deposit of Pay Warrants of the Egyptian Government amounting to £4,716,780, falling due in sixty equal half-yearly instalments, commencing on 1st July, 1903. The amount of Certificates already issued is £1,070,000.

Trustees for the Certificate-holders.

THE RIGHT HON. LORD HILLINGDON.

SIR ERNEST CASSEL, K.C.M.G.

HUGH COLIN SMITH, Esq.

The holders of the Certificates will be entitled to receive out of the proceeds of the deposited Pay Warrants interest at the rate of 4% per annum, commencing from the 1st January, 1903, payable by half-yearly coupons on the 1st July and 1st January, and the principal by means of sixty half-yearly drawings at par, the first repayment to be made on July 1st, 1903.

The payment of coupons up to and including January 1st, 1903, is provided for by the deposit in cash with the Trustees of the amount required.

ISSUE PRICE 100%

payable £ 5 on Application;
£15 on Allotment;
£40 on February 15th;
£40 on March 15th.

Total £100%

The full interest (£4) for six months will be payable on July 1st, 1901, when the first coupon on the Certificates will be due.

Payment in full may be made on allotment, in which case a discount at the rate of 4% per cent. per annum will be allowed.

THE BANK OF ENGLAND are authorised to receive applications for this issue.

THE EGYPTIAN GOVERNMENT in 1898 entered into a contract with Messrs. John Aird & Co. for carrying out certain Irrigation Works, consisting mainly of two large dams (barrages) across the River Nile, one situated at Assouan, about 500 miles, and the other at Assiout, about 250 miles above Cairo.

The Government agreed to pay the Contractors for work done and materials supplied as the works progress, by its Pay Warrants, due as hereafter stated, of which the following is a specimen and translation:-

Numéro de Série 1. Numéro d'Ordre 1.
"TRAVAUX D'IRRIGATION DU GOUVERNEMENT EGYPTIEN."
"ASSOUAN ET ASSIOUT 1898."

"£500 Sterling." "MANDAT DE PAIEMENT." "£500 Sterling."

"Le Gouvernement Egyptien déclare par les présentes, qu'en retour de travaux effectués et de matériaux fournis pour les travaux d'irrigation susmentionnés, il reconnaît devoir, absolument, et sans condition aucune, à MM. John Aird et Cie. la somme de Cinq cents livres sterling (£500)."

"Le Gouvernement s'engage par les présentes à payer à MM. John Aird et Cie. ou au porteur de ce Mandat, le 1er Juillet 1903 ladite somme de Cinq cents livres sterling."

"Ce paiement s'effectuera à Londres, par l'intermédiaire de la Banque d'Angleterre, contre la remise de ce mandat."

"Ce paiement sera effectué à tout événement au Porteur des présentes, en totalité et sans déduction quelconque et indépendamment de toute contestation qui peut être actuellement pendante ou qui pourrait s'élever dans la suite entre le Gouvernement et MM. John Aird et Cie. ou de toute autre contestation quelle qu'elle soit, la dette reconnue par les présentes étant pour une somme certaine et déterminée et constituant une créance liquide et reconnue par le Gouvernement Egyptien."

"Le présent mandat confère au porteur, jusqu'à son entier désintéressement, une affectation sur les travaux pour assurer le paiement de la somme indiquée dans ce mandat, et ledit porteur pourra, d'accord avec les porteurs de tous autres mandats émis par rapport aux mêmes travaux (dont le maximum ne devra pas toutefois excéder les limites mentionnées dans la table au dos des présentes) ou d'accord avec la majorité de ces porteurs, nommer ou faire nommer par l'autorité compétente un représentant chargé de mettre à exécution de la manière qu'il appartiendra ledit droit d'affectation, au cas où ce mandat n'aura pas été payé à l'échéance."

"Aucune prise de possession par le Gouvernement des travaux ni aucun acte quelconque ne seront susceptibles de porter atteinte à ladite affectation."

"Le présent mandat et tous autres mandats émis ou à émettre dans les limites susmentionnées auront rang égal et *pari passu* sans aucun droit de préférence ni de priorité à raison de leur numéro, série, date d'émission ou autre circonstance quelconque."

"En date du 11 Juin, 1898."

"Pour le Gouvernement, (Sd.) H. Fakry."

"Contresigné, Ingénieur du Gouvernement Egyptien. (Sd.) A. R. Webb."

"Series No. 1. EGYPTIAN GOVERNMENT IRRIGATION WORKS. No. 1."

"£500 Sterling. ASSOUAN AND ASSIOUT 1898. £500 Sterling."

"PAY WARRANT."

"The Egyptian Government hereby declares that in consideration of work done and materials supplied for the above Irrigation works it acknowledges that it is indebted absolutely and unconditionally to Messrs. John Aird & Co. in the sum of Five hundred pounds sterling (£500 sterling)."

"The Government hereby undertakes to pay to Messrs. John Aird & Co. or the bearer of this Warrant on the 1st July, 1903, the said sum of Five hundred pounds sterling."

"This payment will be made in any event to the bearer hereof in full without any deduction whatever, and irrespective of any dispute that may be actually pending or which may hereafter arise between the Government and Messrs. John Aird & Co., or of any other dispute whatsoever, the debt hereby acknowledged being for a fixed and determined sum and constituting a claim agreed and recognised by the Egyptian Government."

"This warrant confers upon the bearer, until completely satisfied, a charge upon the works to secure payment of the sum indicated in this Warrant, and the said Bearer may, jointly with the holders of all other Warrants issued in respect of the same works (the maximum amount whereof shall not, however, exceed the limits mentioned in the table hereon endorsed) or in accord with the majority of such holders, appoint or cause to be appointed by the competent authority a representative to be entrusted with the enforcement in such manner as may be called for of such right of charge, should this Warrant not have been paid when due."

"No taking into possession of the works by the Government nor any act whatsoever shall be liable to impair the said charge."

"The present and all other Warrants issued or to be issued within the limits aforesaid, shall rank equally and *pari passu* without any right of preference or priority by reason of their number, series, date of issue, or any other circumstance whatever."

"Dated 11th June, 1898."

"For the Government, The Minister of Public Works, (Sd.) H. Fakry."

"Countersigned, Engineer to the Egyptian Government, (Sd.) A. R. Webb."

The total amount of these Pay Warrants to be issued is £4,716,780, payable by sixty payments of £78,613 each half-yearly, commencing on July 1st, 1903, and ending on January 1st, 1933. The Table endorsed on the Pay Warrants referred to above states these payments in detail.

The Irrigation Investment Corporation, Limited, which was formed for the purpose in 1898, entered into an agreement with Messrs. John Aird & Co. to purchase from them the whole of the £4,716,780 Pay Warrants.

The present issue is made on the authority and on behalf of the Irrigation Investment Corporation, Limited.

Under the terms of a Trust Deed dated the 21st April, 1899, that Corporation has heretofore lodged with the Bank of England on behalf of the Trustees Pay Warrants for £1,800,000, representing sixty half-yearly payments of £30,000 each, commencing on the 1st July, 1903, and ending on the 1st January, 1933, upon trust to apply the proceeds to the due payment of interest and Sinking Fund of the first two issues of £1,070,000 Certificates and expenses from the 1st January, 1903, the payments for interest and Sinking Fund on those issues amounting together to £30,783 half-yearly. The Corporation also lodged a sum sufficient to secure the due payment of interest and expenses of the Trust up to the 1st January, 1903.

Under the terms of the same Trust Deed the Corporation has now lodged with the Bank of England on behalf of the Trustees in respect of the present further issue of £500,000 Certificates, further Pay Warrants for £570,000, representing sixty half-yearly payments of £14,500 each, commencing on the 1st July, 1903, and ending on the 1st January, 1933. The payments for interest and Sinking Fund of the present issue amount to £14,384 half-yearly. The Corporation has also lodged a sum sufficient to secure the due payment of interest on the present issue and the further expenses of the trust up to the 1st January, 1903.

Thus the Pay Warrants and cash lodged with the Trustees represent an amount sufficient for the payment of the interest and Sinking Fund of the three issues of Certificates (together £1,570,000) and expenses.

As and when further issues of the Certificates are made, corresponding amounts of Pay Warrants and cash will be deposited with the Trustees. When the whole of the issue (amounting to £2,714,700) is completed there will be available, apart from the amounts required for interest and Sinking Fund, the amount of £513 half-yearly, which covers the expenses of the Trust.

The Egyptian Government have no power to redeem the Pay Warrants before maturity, and therefore the redemption of the Certificates cannot be anticipated.

Applications must be made on the form accompanying the Prospectus and forwarded together with the amount payable on application to the Bank of England, Threadneedle Street, E.C.

Failure to pay any instalment when due will render all previous payments liable to forfeiture. If no allotment is made the Deposit will be returned in full, and if only a portion of the amount applied for is allotted, the balance of the Deposit will be applied towards the payment of the amount due on allotment.

Scrip Certificates to Bearer will be delivered in exchange for Allotment Letters, and the Trust Certificates will, when ready, be exchanged for fully-paid Scrip Certificates.

A copy of the Deed of Trust and of the Pay Warrants can be seen at the Offices of Messrs. Norton, Rose, Norton & Co., 57½ Old Broad Street, E.C., the Solicitors for the Trustees.

Prospectuses and Forms of Application may be obtained at the Head Office of the Bank of England (Chief Cashier's Office), or at any of its Branches; or of Messrs. Mullens, Marshall & Co., 4 Lombard Street, E.C.

The List will close at or before 4 o'clock on Monday, the 21st of January.

LONDON, E.C., 17th January, 1901.

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